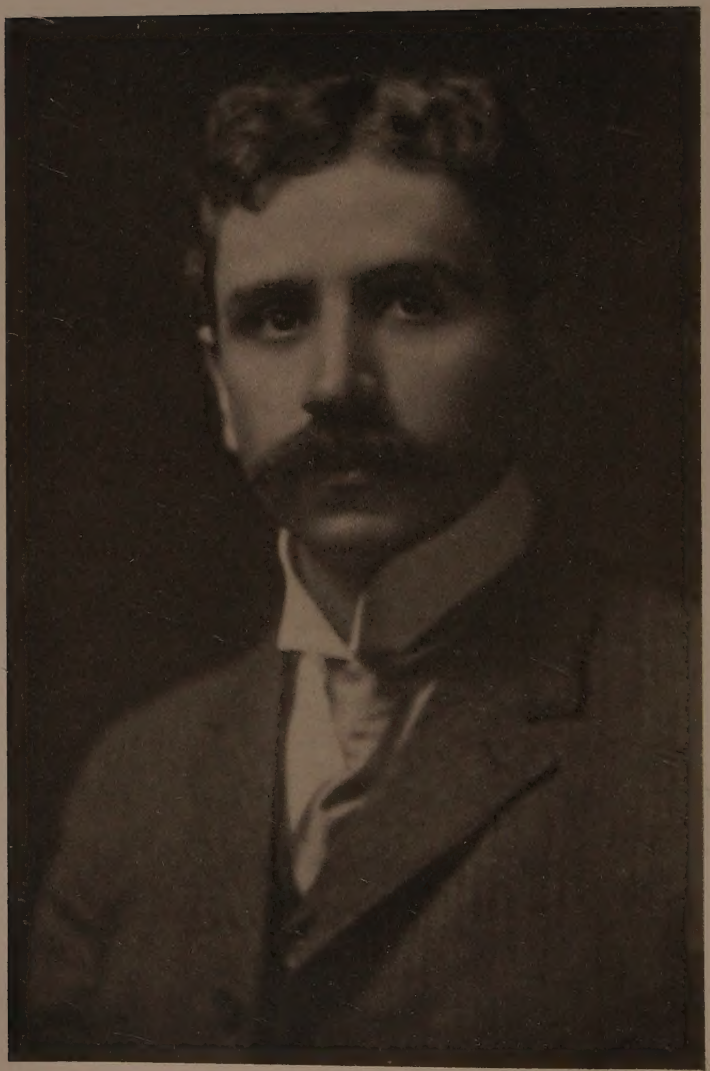
BOSTON
MEDICAL LIBRARY
8 THE FENWAY.



Edward T. Devine

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

Charities and Correction

AT THE

THIRTY-THIRD ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA, PENNA., MAY 9-16, 1906.

EDITED BY
ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

PRESS OF FRED. J. HEER.

HV
5
N3
1906

BOSTON MEDICAL
AUG 29 1910
5756
LIBRARY

CATALOGUED
AUG 29 1910
J. F. B.

PREFACE.

The thirty-third meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction was in several respects unique. Many of the older members had long felt and often expressed a desire to meet in Philadelphia, and ten or twelve years ago tentative invitations were extended. But some influential members, whose homes were in Pennsylvania, felt that the time was not then ripe, that the charitable people of Philadelphia, who had so long and on the whole so admirably, managed so vast a number of Institutions and Societies, did not feel any need of the Conference and might resent a possible imputation that reform was needed in that enlightened and benevolent community, and the tentative invitation was not pressed in competition with others from cities whose represenatives were more aggressive.

But Philadelphia became engaged in a great moral and political revolution. The forces of good government won in the struggle. The psychological moment had arrived and the invitation, which came with enthusiasm, was enthusiastically accepted. Great things were expected and the hopes of the most sanguine were more than realized. Not only was the attendance from abroad, owing to the splendid advertising of the local committee, the largest on record, but the citizens filled the large halls, and nearly four hundred enrolled as active, and fifty-seven as sustaining, members.

For the first time in its history, the President was not with the Conference, but his absence, from the fact of its cause, so far from detracting from the meeting really added enthusiasm. It was felt that in honoring its chief officer by giving into his charge the greatest piece of charity work (for the time being) in the world, the president of the United States had honored the Conference itself and the cause for which it stands.

The volume here presented has several features of more than common interest. To a larger extent than usual, eminent men from outside the membership have contributed of their best thought upon urgent problems. The recently organized national

societies upon Tuberculosis, Child Labor and Day Nursuries used the Conference as a forum. Upon some well-worn topics papers were presented from points of view so modern and scientific that they have the effect of freshness in a remarkable degree.

While the editor has done all that he believes practicable in the interest of brevity, the volume has a few more pages than that of 1904, which up to the present is the largest in the splendid collection of proceedings.

The 34th Conference will be held in Minneapolis, June 12 to 19, 1907, Mr. Amos W. Butler, Secretary of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, being president.

Indianapolis, October 1, 1906. A. J.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PAGE

FRONTISPIECE: Portrait of EDWARD T. DEVINE.

PREFACE iii

RULES OF PROCEDURE xi

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE (1906) xv

COMMITTEES (1906) xvi

I. PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.
The Dominant Note of Modern Philanthropy, by EDWARD T. DEVINE 1

II. THE CONFERENCE SERMON, by REV. J. M. BUCKLEY, D. D. 11

III. REPORTS FROM STATES.
Report of the Committee 14
Arkansas, by J. H. REYNOLDS 19
Colorado, by CLARENCE HAGER 19
Connecticut, by CHARLES P. KELLOGG 20
Delaware, by MRS. EMALEA P. WARNER 22
District of Columbia, by GEORGE S. WILSON 22
Georgia, by DR. T. D. LONGINO 24
Illinois, by J. MACK TANNER 24
Indiana, by AMOS W. BUTLER 25
Iowa, by F. S. TREAT 28
Kansas, by F. W. BLACKMAR 28
Kentucky, by MISS EMMA A. GALLAGHER 29
Louisiana, by MICHEL HEYMANN 30
Maine, by EDWIN P. WENTWORTH 30
Maryland, by NATHANIEL G. GRASTY 31
Massachusetts, by JOSEPH LEE 35
Michigan, by LUCIUS C. STORRS 39
Minnesota, by A. W. GUTRIDGE 40
Missouri, by MISS MARY E. PERRY 40
Nebraska, by REV. A. W. CLARK 42
New Hampshire, by MRS. LILLIAN C. STREETER . . . 44
New Jersey, by MISS MINA C. GINGER 45
New York, by W. BRADFORD BUCK 49
North Carolina, by MISS DAISY DENSON 57
North Dakota, by FRANK D. HALL 58
Ohio, by H. H. SHIRER 58
Oregon, by W. R. WALPOLE 60
Pennsylvania, by CARL KELSEY 61

PAGE

III. Reports from States — Concluded.
Rhode Island, by James H. Eastman 66
Tennessee 69
Texas, by Rev. R. C. Buckner 69
Utah, by Mrs. Ida Smoot Dusenberry 70
Vermont, by Rev. J. Edward Wright 71
Virginia, by Dr. W. F. Drewry 71
Washington, by Miss Anna H. Murray 72
West Virginia, by R. H. Brown 73
Wisconsin, by H. Grotophorst 74
New Brunswick, Canada, by Rev. Thos. Hunter Boyd. 75
Ontario, Canada, by Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh 76
Republic of Cuba, by Dr. Juan B. Valdes 77
Out Door Relief 79
State Conferences of Charities 83
Statistics of Institutions, Appendix H 630

IV. Children.
Report of the Committee, by Hastings H. Hart, Chairman 87
The Full Measure of Responsibility, by William H. Pear 96
Work of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Essential in the Prevention of Crime, by Grafton D. Cushing 106
The Co-ordination of Child-Helping Agencies, by Mornay Williams 111
Juvenile Probation, by Homer Folks 117
The Juvenile Court; the Judge and the Probation Officer, by Julian W. Mack 123
Work of Probation Officer Preliminary to the Trial, by Mrs. Annie Ramsey 132
Work of the Probation Officer in Court, by Miss Lucy Friday 136
The Delinquent Girl, by Miss Vida Hunt Francis . 138
Industrial Training for Boys, by James Allison . . 145
Discussion on Children 537, 574
Meeting of Probation Officers 587

V. Child Labor.
Report of the Committee, by Samuel McCune Lindsay, Chairman 150
The Moral Dangers of Premature Employment, by Mrs. Florence Kelley 157
Discussion on Child Labor 521

VI. Care of the Sick.
Report of the Committee, by Arthur B. Ancker, Chairman 165
Free Medical Aid for the Poor, by Charles P. Emerson 168

VI. Care of the Sick — Concluded. PAGE
Requirements of Hospitals for the Treatment of Contagious Diseases, by Matthias Nicoll, Jr. . . . 175
State and Municipal Control of Tuberculosis, by Mayzck P. Ravenal 182
The Educational Opportunity of the Visiting Nurse in the Prevention of Disease, by Miss Charlotte A. Aikens 185
Discussion on Care of the Sick 530

VII. Charitable Finance.
Report of the Committee, by Frank Tucker, Chairman 196
Philanthropy and Accountancy, by Frederick A. Cleveland 199
Making the Budget of a Charitable Activity, by William R. Patterson 206
Methods of Raising Funds for a Charitable Society, by Walter S. Ufford 213
The Financial History of the Newark Bureau of Associated Charities, by Miss Mina C. Ginger . . . 223
Public Subsidies to Private Charities, by Henry B. F. Macfarland 227
Discussion on Charitable Finance 568

VIII. Defectives.
Report of the Committee, by E. R. Johnstone, Chairman 235
Pre-historic Education of the Race in its Relation to Present Educational Problems, by Thomas M. Balliet 243
The Care and Training of the Deaf, by A. L. E. Crouter 249
The Feeble Minded Blind, by Edward E. Allen . . 259
The Intermarriage of Cousins, by William W. Longstreth 261
Aims and Possibilities of the New Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics, by J. Moorhead Murdock . 269
By T. C. Fitzsimmons . . 273
Discussion on Defectives 563

IX. Immigration.
Report of the Committee, by Joseph Lee, Chairman. 279
The New Immigration: Some Unfavorable Features and Possible Remedies, by William Williams . . . 285
How Shall We Make Our Immigration Laws More Effective, by Broughton Brandenburg 299
Ethnic Factors in Immigration: A Critical View, by Maurice Fishberg 304
Race Effects of Immigration, by L. C. Marshall . 314
Discussion on Immigration 591
Plates Illustrating Race Effects, Appendix G 626

		PAGE
X.	NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.	
	Report of the Committee, by LEE K. FRANKEL, CHAIRMAN	325
	A Problem in Co-operation, by H. S. BRAUCHER	334
	Standards of Living, by S. E. FORMAN	342
	Relief Work of the Salvation Army, by EDWIN D. SOLENBERGER	349
	Discussion on Standards of Living	514
	Discussion on Relief Work of the Salvation Army	503
XI.	NEIGHBORHOOD WORK.	
	Housing Conditions in Philadelphia, by THE OCTAVIA HILL ASSOCIATION	367
	Summary Evictions from Tenements, by FREDERIC ALMY.	376
	The Distribution of Population, by MORRIS LOEB	382
	Playgrounds, by MABEL MEADE	396
	Discussion on Housing Conditions, Etc	580
	Penna. Tenement House Law, Appendix A	608
	Statistics of Playgrounds, Appendix B	611
XII.	STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION.	
	Efficiency in State Charitable and Correctional Institutions, by J. FRANK HANLY	401
	Discussion on State Supervision	544
XIII.	STATISTICS.	
	Report of the Committee, by AMOS W. BUTLER, CHAIRMAN	412
	Our Statistical Needs, by JOHN KOREN	418
	Social Statistics as Presented in the Reports of State Boards of Charities, by DAVID S. SNEDDEN	422
	Statistics of Dependent Families, by LILIAN BRANDT	434
	Plates Illustrating Statistics, Appendix F	620
XIV.	TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS.	
	Report of the Committee, by JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, CHAIRMAN	445
	Discussion on Training of Social Workers	567
XV.	WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE AND OLD AGE PENSIONS.	
	Report of the Committee, by CHARLES R. HENDERSON, CHAIRMAN	452
	Insurance from the Employer's Standpoint, by E. A. VANDERLIP	457
	The Need of Industrial Insurance, by FRANK A. FETTER.	464
	Government and Municipal Pensions, by AMOS W. BUTLER	470
	Discussion on Industrial Insurance	596
	Tables Illustrating Pensions, Etc., Appendix C.	612
XVI.	MINUTES AND DISCUSSIONS.	
	Opening Session	488
	Address by GROVER CLEVELAND	488

XVI. Minutes and Discussions — Concluded.

Opening Session — Concluded. PAGE

Address by Mayor Weaver 493
Address by Talcott Williams. 494
Address by Robert W. de Forest 496
Address by Henry B. F. Macfarland 499
Address by Julian W. Mack 501
First General Session 503
Discussion on Needy Families in their Homes . 503
Adjourned First Session 514
Needy Families — Continued 514
Second General Session 520
Discussion on Child Labor 521
Third General Session 525
Amendments of Rules of Procedure 525
Discussion on Care of the Sick 530
Fourth General Session 537
Discussion on Children 537
Fifth General Session 471
Relief in Great Emergencies 541
Discussion on State Supervision and Administration 544
The Relief Work in San Francisco 549
Sixth General Session 558
Memorial Tributes to Deceased Officers . . . 558
Discussion on Defectives 563
Afternoon Session 567
Training of Social Workers 567
Seventh General Session 568
Discussion on Charitable Finance 568
Eighth General Session. 573
Discussion on Children 574
Ninth General Session 580
Discussion on Neighborhood Work 580
Probation Officers; Meeting of 587
Tenth General Session 591
Discussion on Immigration 591
Afternoon Meeting 594
The American Federation of Day Nurseries . 594
Eleventh General Session 596
Discussion on Workingmen's Insurance and Old Age Pensions 596
Report of Committee on Resolutions 600
Closing Execises 601

Appendix A. Tenement House Law (Penna.) 608
Appendix B. Playgrounds (Tables) 611
Appendix C. Pensions (Tables) 612
Appendix D. Pensions (Bibliography) 617

PAGE

Appendix E. List of Places of Meeting and Officers 619
Appendix F. Statistics (Blanks, etc.) 620
Appendix G. Race Effects of Immigration (Charts) 656
Appendix H. Reports from States (Statistical tables) 630
Treasurer's Annual Statement 642
Secretary's Financial Report 643
List of Members 645
Organization of Conference (1907) 668
Committees (1907) 670
Members and Officers of State Boards and Commissions 672
Index to Writers and Speakers 679
Index of Subjects 681

RULES OF PROCEDURE FOR THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.*

Preamble.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction exists to discuss the problems of charities and correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms. It does not formulate platforms.

I. Membership.

All persons who are interested in charities and correction may become members by registering their names and paying the annual fee.

Honorary members may be elected on recommendation of the Executive Committee.

The annual membership fee shall be $2.50, and the sustaining membership fee shall be $10.00 annually. These membership fees shall entitle each member to a copy of the Proceedings and other publications of the Conference.

State Boards of Charities and other societies and institutions subscribing for the Proceedings in quantities shall be entitled to enroll their officers and members as members of this Conference at the rate of one member for each $2.50 paid.

II. Officers.

The officers of the Conference shall be a President, first, second and third Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six assistant Secretaries, a Treasurer, and a Corresponding Secretary from each state and territory. These officers shall be elected annually by the Conference.

III. Committees.

The standing committees shall be an Executive Committee and a committee on each subject which it is proposed to discuss at the ensuing Conference.

The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, first Vice-President, and all ex-Presidents ex-officio, and nine members to be elected annually by the Conference.

The President, soon after the opening of the Conference, shall appoint a committee of seven on Organization of the next Conference; also a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate.

*Including amendments made May, 1906.

At each annual session of the Conference, on the first day after the organization, the members present from each state or territory shall meet and appoint one of their number to represent them on a committee to be known as the Committee on Time and Place of the next meeting. The Committee on Time and Place shall meet on the afternoon or evening of the same day for the purpose of receiving invitations from states, cities or towns, and shall prepare a report which shall be presented to the Conference on the following morning. The vote on the report of the committee shall be taken by ballot, and every member of the Conference shall have the right to cast his ballot for the place of his choice, provided that no invitation shall be accepted which does not receive a majority of all the ballots cast; and provided, further, that the place of meeting selected may be changed by the Executive Committee, if satisfactory local arrangements cannot be made.

IV. Duties of Officers.

The President shall be chairman, *ex-officio,* of the Executive Committee, and shall have the supervision of the work of the several committees in preparing for the meeting of the Conference. He shall have authority to accept resignations and to fill vacancies in the list of officers and chairmen of committees, and to fill vacancies in and add to the numbers of any committee except the Executive Committee. In case of the absence or inability of the President to serve he shall be succeeded by the first Vice-President, and he in like manner by the second or third Vice-President in the order named.

The General Secretary shall be *ex-officio* Secretary of the Executive Committee, and Chairman of the Committee on Reports from States. He shall conduct the correspondence of the Conference with officers, committees, and others, under the direction of the President. He shall have charge of the distribution of all announcements and programs, and shall direct the work of the secretaries and be responsible for the correctness of the roll of members. He shall be the custodian of the unsold copies of the reports of the Proceedings, receive all orders for the same, and direct their distribution.

He shall receive all membership fees and proceeds of sales of the reports of the Proceedings, and pay the same promptly to the Treasurer. He shall receive compensation for his services and an allowance for clerk hire and other expenses, the amount and time of payment of which shall be fixed by the Executive Committee from time to time.

The Treasurer shall receive and disburse all moneys of the Conference, all disbursements to be made only upon order of the General Secretary, approved by the President or by some member of the Executive Committee, to be named by the President.

The President of the retiring Conference and the General Secretary shall constitute a publication Committee, and shall have charge of the editing and publishing of the proceedings.

The Corresponding Secretaries shall be responsible for the annual

reports from their several states. It shall be their duty to secure the attendance of representatives from public and private institutions and societies.

V. The Duties of Committees.

The Executive Committee shall be the President's Advisory Board, and shall hold the powers of the Conference in the interim between the meetings. The Executive Committee may appoint sub-committees to attend to matters of detail.

Meetings of the Executive Committee shall be called by the President of the Conference, and five members shall constitute a quorum provided that, when the Conference is not in session, three members shall constitute a quorum.

The Local Committee shall make all necessary local arrangements for the meeting, and provide funds for the local expenses, such as hall rent, salary and expenses of the Reporter, and all necessary printing except the proceedings, in such amount as the Executive Committee may determine.

The President, in consultation with the Chairman of each Standing Committee, shall arrange the program for the sessions and section meetings, and shall so arrange it as to give opportunity for free discussion; provided that the program, before final adoption, shall be submitted to the Executive Committee for its approval.

No paper shall be presented to the Conference except through the proper committee, and no paper shall be read in the absence of the writer except by unanimous consent.

VI. Section Meetings.

The Section Meetings are designed for familiar discussion. Not more than one paper shall be read at any Section Meeting, and that paper shall be limited to fifteen minutes. If possible, papers shall be printed and distributed beforehand, that the entire meetings may be given to discussion.

VII. Debates.

In the debates of the Conference, speakers shall be limited to five minutes each, except by unanimous consent, and shall not be allowed to speak twice on any one subject until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.

VIII. Amendments.

These rules shall remain in force from year to year, unless amended; and all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted on by the Conference.

ORGANIZATION OF CONFERENCE 1906.

PRESIDENT.

Edward T. Devine, New York.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.*

George L. Sehon, Louisville, Ky.
Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, Portland, Ore.
Joseph Lee, Boston, Mass.

GENERAL SECRETARY.

Alexander Johnson.

ASSISTANT SECRETARIES.

W. H. McClain, Gen. Mngr. Provident Association, 1623 Washington Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
Charles P. Kellogg, Sec'y St. Bd. Char., Waterbury, Conn.
Arthur P. Kellogg, 105 E 22d St., New York City.
Nathaniel G. Grasty, Baltimore.
Harold K. Estabrook, Philadelphia.

TREASURER.

Robert J. Hoguet, New York City.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, O.
F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.
Fred H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.
Wm. P. Letchworth, Castile, Wyoming Co., N. Y.
Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie, Grand Rapids, Mich.
H. H. Hart, Chicago.
L. C. Storrs, Lansing, Mich.
Robert Treat Paine, Boston.
Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis.
William R. Stewart, New York.
Charles R. Henderson, Chicago.
Charles E. Faulkner, Minneapolis.
John M. Glenn, Baltimore.
Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind.
Robert W. de Forest, New York.
Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston.
Rev. Samuel G. Smith, St. Paul.
Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield, N. J.
Thomas M. Mulry, New York.
Michel Heymann, New Orleans.
George Vaux, Jr., Philadelphia.
Mornay Williams, New York.
Rutherford H. Platt, Columbus, O.
Judge Julian W. Mack, Chicago.

STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARIES.

Alaska ..... Rev. Sheldon Jackson, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Arkansas ..... Prof. J. H. Reynolds, Fayetteville.
California ..... Miss Katherine C. Felton, 1308 Webster St., Oakland.
Colorado ..... Clarence Hagar, Sec'y, State Bd. of Charities and Correction, Denver.
Connecticut ..... Charles P. Kellogg, Sec'y State Bd. of Charities, Waterbury.
Delaware ..... Mrs. Emalea P. Warner, 1202 Delaware Ave., Wilmington.

* Hon. L. G. Kinne, Des Moines, Ia., Vice-President of the Conference, died at his home at Des Moines, Mar. 15th, 1906, and Mr. Joseph Lee, of Boston, Mass., was elected in his place.

District of Columbia	George S. Wilson, Sec. Bd. of Charities, District Bldg., Washington, D. C.
Georgia	Dr. T. D. Longino, 719 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
Illinois	J. Mack Tanner, Sec. Bd. State Com., Public Char., Springfield.
Indiana	Amos W. Butler, Sec. Bd. of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Iowa	F. S. Treat, Sec. Bd. of Control, Des Moines.
Kansas	Prof. F. W. Blackmar, Lawrence.
Kentucky	Miss Emma A. Gallagher, 221 E. Walnut St., Louisville.
Louisiana	Michel Heymann, 5342 St. Charles Ave., New Orleans.
Maine	E. P. Wentworth, Portland.
Maryland	Nathaniel G. Grasty, Sec'y Supervisors of City Charities, Baltimore.
Massachusetts	Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont St., Boston.
Michigan	L. C. Storrs, Sec. Bd. Char. & Corr., Lansing.
Minnesota	A. W. Gutridge, Globe Bldg., St. Paul.
Missouri	Miss Mary E. Perry, Vice-Pres. St. Bd. Char. & Corr., 12 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis.
Nebraska	Rev. A. W. Clark, Omaha.
New Hampshire	Mrs. Frank S. Streeter, 234 No. Main St., Concord.
New Jersey	Miss Mina C. Ginger, 10 Academy St., Newark.
New York	William Bradford Buck, St. Bd. of Charities, Albany.
North Carolina	Miss Daisy Denson, Sec. Board of Public Charities, Raleigh.
North Dakota	Frank D. Hall, 1425 4th Ave. So., Fargo.
Ohio	H. H. Shirer, Sec. Bd. of St. Charities, Columbus.
Oklahoma	Mrs. R. W. Ramsay, Guthrie.
Oregon	W. R. Walpole, 305 Jefferson St., Portland.
Pennsylvania	Carl Kelsey, Asst. Prof. Sociology Univ. of Penna., Philadelphia.
Rhode Island	James H. Eastman, Supt. State Institutions, Howard.
Tennessee	A. F. Davis, Supt. United Char., Memphis.
Texas	Rev. R. C. Buckner, Dallas.
Utah	Mrs. Ida S. Dusenberry, Provo.
Vermont	Rev. J. Edward Wright, 19 Baldwin St., Montpelier.
Virginia	Dr. Wm. F. Drewry, Petersburg.
West Virginia	R. H. Brown, P. O. Box 692, Morgantown.
Washington	Miss Anna H. Murray, 742 New York Bldg., Seattle.
Wisconsin	Herman Grotophorst, Pres. St. Bd. of Control, Baraboo
British Columbia	C. J. South, Vancouver.
New Brunswick	Rev. Hunter Boyd, The Manse, Waweig.
Ontario	Dr. A. M. Roseburgh, 22 Clinton St., Toronto.
Quebec	Richard H. Lane, C. O. S., 98 Bleury St., Montreal.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

REPORTS FROM STATES.

Alexander Johnson, Chairman, Ex-Officio. George B. Davis, Richmond, Va. T. D. Longino, Atlanta, Ga. J. Mack Tanner, Springfield, Ill. Miss F. R. Morse, 12 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass. L. A. Rosing, St. Paul, Minn.

STATE SUPERVISION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Ernest P. Bicknell, Chairman, Bureau of Charities, Chicago. Hon. E. F. Gould, Erie, Pa. Hon. F. J. Torrance, Pres. St. Bd. of Public Charities, Bessemer Bldg., Pittsburg, Pa. Prof. E. C. Moore, Pres. St. Bd. Char. and Corr., 1227 Washington St., San Francisco. R. W. Hebberd, New York City. R. H. Platt, Columbus, Ohio. Ensley Moore, Jacksonville, Ill. D. F. Tilley, 60 Devonshire St., Boston, Mass. John Cownie, Des Moines, Ia. George L. Smith, Chairman St. Bd. Char. and Corr., Nyatt, R. I. Hoke Smith, Atlanta, Ga. Mrs. Sarah S. Platt Decker, 1550 Sherman Ave.,

State Supervision and Administration — Concluded.

Denver, Colo. W. B. Streeter, Greensboro, N. C. Thomas D. Osborne, Weissinger-Gaulbert, Louisville, Ky. Frank L. Randall, Gen. Supt. St. Reformatory, St. Cloud, Minn. Lewis H. Zinkhan, Washington Asylum, Washington, D. C. Cadwalader Biddle, 1225 Sansom St., Philadelphia, Pa. John L. Roper, Norfolk, Va. Bleecker Van Wagenen, So. Orange, N. J.

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

Lee K. Frankel, Chairman, 356 2d Ave., New York City. E. D. Solenberger, Court House, Minneapolis, Minn. Mrs. C. A. Whitney, Assoc. Charities, Oakland, Cal. Miss Carrie Rein, 219 Jefferson St., South Bend, Ind. Mrs. F. S. Lee, 125 E. 65th St., New York City. Thomas N. Strong, Portland, Ore. Mrs. E. R. Whiting, 10 Court House Place, Springfield, Mass. Walter Kruesi, 105 E. 22d St., New York City. James H. Pershing, 404 Equitable Bldg., Denver, Colo. Stephen P. Morris, 1 Market House, Omaha, Neb. Eugene T. Lies, Unity Bldg., Chicago, Ill. Miss Helen L. Parrish, 313 S. 10th St., Philadelphia, Pa. Prof. Thomas Dwight, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Mass. Dr. Charles P. Emerson, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md. Mrs. John Sherwin, 886 Prospect St., Cleveland, Ohio. A. W. McDougall, 10 Academy St., Newark, N. J. D. A. Glasscoff, 415 I. L. & T. Bldg., Des Moines, Iowa. Wilfred B. Fetterman, 524 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. Mrs. Enoch Rauch, 5837 Bartlett St., Pittsburg, Pa. Robert R. P. Bradford, 140 W. Lehigh Ave., Philadelphia. Miss Eleanor B. Hanson, 379 8th St., St. Paul, Minn. Rev. Henry R. Rose, 54½ South St., Newark, N. J. Mrs. Wm. Einstein, 121 E. 57th St., New York City.

CARE OF THE SICK.

Dr. Arthur B. Ancker, Chairman, St. Paul, Minn. Dr. Livingston Farrand, 105 E. 22d St., New York City. Miss Kate McLane, 1101 N. Charles St., Baltimore, Md. Dr. Albert C. Getchell, 6 Linden St., Worcester, Mass. Miss Jess Stevens, Coliseum and Polymnia, New Orleans, La. Dr. Woods Hutchinson, Redlands, Cal. Rev. Joseph F. McGuire, E. Capitol and 14th St., Washington, D. C. Dr. John H. Lowman, 441 Prospect St., Cleveland, Ohio. Miss Elizabeth Ashe, Telegraph Hill Settlement, San Francisco, Cal. Dr. G. Walter Holden, Supt. Agnes Mem. Sanitorium, Denver, Colo. Dr. H. Longstreet Taylor, 75 Lowry Arcade, St. Paul, Minn. W. C. Nones, Kentucky Wagon Mnfg. Co., Louisville, Ky. Dr. A. C. Abbott, 610 City Hall, Philadelphia, Pa. Mrs. Charles J. Hatfield, 258 S. 18th St., Philadelphia, Pa. Mrs. L. W. Quintard, Visiting Nurse Society, 1340 Lombard St., Philadelphia, Pa. Richard H. Reeve, 700 Cooper St., Camden, N. J.

INSANE.

Dr. William Mabon, State Commission in Lunacy, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y. Miss Mary Vida Clark, 105 E. 22d St., New York. Dr. Dorothea Moore, 1227 Washington St., San Francisco, Cal. Dr. G. O. Welch, Fergus Falls, Minn. Dr. Owen Copp, St. Bd. of Insanity, St. House, Boston, Mass. Dr. V. H. Podstata, Gen. Supt. Cook Co. Institutions, Dunning, Chicago, Ill. Dr. Wm. F. Drewry, Petersburg, Va. C. E. Haddox, Moundsville, W. Va. Dr. Mary M. Wolfe, State Hospital for Insane, Norristown, Pa. Dr. W. W. Hawke, Phys. in charge Insane Dept., Philadelphia Hospital, Philadelphia, Pa. Charles F. Currie, Grenloch, Camden Co., N. J.

NEIGHBORHOOD WORK.

Mrs. Mary Roberts Smith, Chairman, 86 S. Park, San Francisco. Mrs. Mary Wilcox Glenn, 617 Columbia Ave., Baltimore, Md. Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 E. 22d St., New York. Miss Emily Dinwiddie, 105 E. 22d St., New York. M. M. Woods, 230 So. 3d St. W., Salt Lake City, Utah. Edmund J. Butler, Tenement House Dept., New York City. Frederick Almy, 19 Tupper St., Buffalo, N. Y. George A. Bellamy, Hiram House, 345 Orange St., Cleveland, Ohio. Mrs. Raymond Robins, 372 W. Ohio St., Chicago, Ill. Miss Caroline Macomber Crosby, 1616 N. Washington Ave., Minneapolis, Minn. Miss A. F. Davies, 433 Christian St., Philadelphia, Pa. John R. Cary, Roland Park, Baltimore, Md. Miss Hannah Fox, 339 S. Broad St., Philadelphia, Pa. Carl Kelsey, Univ. of Pa., Philadelphia, Pa. Royal L. Melendy, Newark, N. J.

DEFECTIVES.

Edward R. Johnstone, Chairman, N. J. Training School, Vineland, N. J. Dr. Samuel R. Cunningham, 1902 Highland Place, Indianapolis, Ind. Dr. W. H. C. Smith, Beverly Farm School, Godfrey, Ill. O. S. Storrs, Com. of Charities, Denver, Colo. Thomas C. Smith, 135 Broadway, New York City. Dr. Martin W. Barr, Elwyn, Pa. Dr. Arthur Jelly, 69 Newbury St., Boston, Mass. Miss Elizabeth E. Farrell, Public School, Henry St., New York City. Mrs. F. S. Streeter, 234 N. Main St., Concord, N. H. Miss E. C. Putnam, 63 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass. Miss Dora Keen, 1729 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. John B. Curtis, 7437 Kimbark Ave., Chicago. Dr. Frank E. Osborne, Inst. for F. M. Youth, Beatrice, Neb. Frank H. Hall, Aurora, Ill. Dr. J. Moorhead Murdock, Polk, Pa. Edward E. Allen, Overbrook, Pa. Miss Mary S. Garrett, Philadelphia, Pa.

CHARITABLE FINANCE.

Frank Tucker, Chairman, 105 E. 22d St., New York. T. D. Hurley, 3653 Grand Boul., Chicago. George S. Wilson, Board of Charities, Washington, D. C. Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, Johns Hopkins Univ., Baltimore, Md. Owen J. Roberts, 1328 Chestnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. Frank J. Firth, 373 Church Lane, Germantown, Pa. Rev. Maitland Alexander, D. D., 3620 Forbes St., Pittsburg, Pa. Robert H. Brookings, Cupples Block, St. Louis, Mo. William C. Ball, Terre Haute, Ind. Rev. James I. Vance, Newark, N. J.

IMMIGRATION.

Joseph Lee, Chairman, 101 Tremont St., Boston, Mass. T. P. Thompson, 1812 Calhoun St., New Orleans, La. Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D., 239 E. 21st St., New York. W. Almont Gates, 538 Parrott Bldg., San Francisco, Cal. Robert deC. Ward, Harvard Univ., Cambridge, Mass. Samuel J. Barrows, 135 E. 15th St., New York. A. W. Gutridge, Assoc. Charities, St. Paul, Minn. Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn, Ph. D., 81 Columbia Heights, Brooklyn, N. Y. John H. Davis, Lincoln, Neb. Max Herzberg, 802 Commonwealth Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa. A. M. Valerio, Hull House, Chicago, Ill.

STATISTICS.

Amos W. Butler, Chairman, Board State Charities, Indianapolis, Ind. Miss Lilian Brandt, Statistician Ch. Org. Soc., New York City. Frederick L. Hoffman, Statistician Prudential Life Ins. Co., Newark, N. J. Charles M. Hubbard, Associated Charities, Cincinnati, Ohio. Miss Irene Osgood, 1243 E. Dayton St., Madison, Wis. John Koren, U. S. Census Bureau, Boston, Mass.

TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS.

Jeffrey R. Brackett, Chairman, 41 Marlboro St., Boston, Mass. Mrs. Emily E. Williamson, Elizabeth, N. J. Charles H. Cooley, Ann Arbor, Mich. Richard T. Ely, Univ. of Wis., Madison, Wis. Frank A. Fetter, Cornell Heights, Ithaca, N. Y. Charles R. Henderson, Univ. of Chicago. Charles P. Neill, 1429 N. Y. Ave., Washington, D. C. Graham Taylor, The Commons, Chicago, Ill. Simon N. Patten, Univ. of Penn., Philadelphia. Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, 457 W. 23d St., New York.

CHILDREN.

Hastings H. Hart, Chairman, 601 Unity Bldg., Chicago, Ill. A. J. Hutton, Waukesha, Wis., Box 378. James H. Eastman, Howard, R. I. Grafton D. Cushing, Barrister's Hall, Boston, Mass. Miss Grace Johnston, Redwing, Minn. Hon. A. L. Fraser, Portland, Ore. Mrs. Edward Morrell, Philadelphia. Charles Hutzler, Richmond, Va. Mrs. Emma L. Quinlan, 508 Oakley Boulevard, Chicago, Ill. S. J. Hathaway, Marietta, Ohio. Miss Ida L. Gregory, 1032 11th St., Denver, Col. Joseph P. Byers, Randall's Island, New York. Mrs. Lucy M. Sickles, Adrian, Mich. Hon. A. W. Frater, Seattle, Wash. Willis Brown, Judge Juv. Court, Salt Lake City, Utah. Mrs. Martha Falconer, Philadelphia, Pa. C. W. Heuisler, 1109 Culvert Bldg., Baltimore, Md. George B. Robinson, 415 Broome St., New York. F. H. Nibecker, Glen Mills, Pa. A. W. Clark, Omaha, Neb. J. J. Kelso, Parliament Bldg., Toronto, Can. Dr. Harriet B. Jones, Wheeling, W. Va. Mrs. Deshea Breckenridge, Lexington, Ky. Mrs. W. W. Frazier, 250 S. 18th St., Philadelphia, Pa. Mrs. J. W. Martin, 1709 Walnut St., Philadelphia, Pa. Miss Vida H. Francis, 6445 Greene St., Germantown, Pa. Mrs. M. H. C. Mitchell, Mem. Bd. of St. Char., 288 W. Thames St., Norwich, Conn. J. Moore White, Probation Officer, Camden, N. J. Mrs. Helen W. Rogers, Juv. Court, Indianapolis, Ind.

CHILD LABOR.

Samuel McCune Lindsay, Chairman, Philadelphia, Pa. Isaac A. Loos, Iowa City, Ia. Charles P. Neill, U. S. Comr. of Labor, Washington, D. C. Mrs. B. H. Trumbull, 821 Corbett St., Portland, Ore. Edward W. Frost, Wells Bldg., Milwaukee, Wis. Arthur O. Lovejoy, Washington Univ., St. Louis, Mo. Dr. Cornelia DeBey, 6565 Yale Ave., Chicago, Ill. Mrs. Frederic C. Howe, 4 Glen Park Pl., Cleveland, Ohio. George A. Hall, 105 E. 22d St., New York City. Mrs. May Alden Ward, 281 Dartmouth St., Boston, Mass. A. H. Willett, Brown Univ., Providence, R. I. Mrs. A. D. Warner, 1202 Delaware Ave., Wilmington, Del. A. J. McKelway, 604 Century Bldg., Atlanta Ga. Scott Nearing, 708 N. Amer. Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa. George L. Sehon, 411 W. Green St., Louisville, Ky. Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 E. 22d St., New York City.

BOSTON MEDICAL
AUG 29 1910
LIBRARY

President's Address.

THE DOMINANT NOTE OF THE MODERN PHILANTHROPY.

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE.

The history of this National Conference begins with the problems of charitable institutions supported by taxation, and caring for those persons, adults and children, who by reason of infirmity or misconduct are for the time being wards of the state. Whatever excursions are made into the larger social problems, we return inevitably for our central fundamental and inalienable task, to the charitable and correctional institutions and those whom they shelter. Prison, asylum, almshouse, and orphanage remain immediately before us, cutting off, it may be, the vision of a regenerated society to which enthusiasts for prevention would direct our thoughts, and giving us with every rising sun the day's work of our hands. Whatever the secret sympathies or the outside interests of individuals may be, it remains true that the great majority of those who in the successive years have been enrolled in this Conference are judged by their success or failure in the giving of actual support to the indigent or discipline to the delinquent.

Although prevention is to be preferred to relief it is a reasonable demand that this Conference in its several sessions shall constantly return to the consideration of these problems of institutional care, and especially to the questions relating to the duty of the state and its political subdivisions, and that the undivided influence of the Conference, whatever subjects it may from time to time consider, shall be brought persistently and effectively to bear upon the standards of efficiency in these institutions, and upon the standards of citizenship in the community which determine whether the institutions are to have the necessary financial and moral support, and whether they are to be held to strict accountability for their work.

It remains true, however, that these institutions and societies

have their place in the larger social scheme of things. They have to do mainly with the wrecks of industry, stranded personalities, the handicapped, the inefficient, the exploited. Working with these unfortunates and thinking day after day about them, we may finally come to think that no responsibility for the general improvement of mankind rests upon our shoulders. But this is a mistake.

What we have to do has no meaning, does not become fundamentally worth while, except as we see its bearing upon the larger social problem of the generation. Unless we can feel that in the last analysis there is some social utility in the work of our institutions, societies, committees, state and municipal departments, they will not forever command our enthusiasm and loyalty, even though, as archaic survivals, they may still provide professionals an income, and volunteers a congenial method of keeping in the public eye.

The dominant note of the modern philanthropy is one which does thus relate the work of charitable relief and reformatory discipline to the all-absorbing social problem. This idea is not that of compassion though sympathy lies at its root; nor that of justice — though justice, to change the figure, is its corner-stone. The doctrine that the state must prevent starvation, lest starving men become dangerous, is so little the key-note of our charity that it sounds strange in our ears; and equally inadequate as an expression of the modern philanthropy is the injunction to withhold alms lest by giving we pauperize.

To these ideas we may give grudging assent, or we may indignantly, if illogically, repudiate them altogether, but in either event we demand something more and something different. Again, we are not content to give alms merely for the sake of our own spiritual welfare, even according to the most approved canons of secrecy and humility.

The ancient Jewish ideal of not withholding the hand from the poor and the needy, primarily because of a sense of duty and of personal dignity — a sense of what is due to oneself; and the Christian ideal of infinite compassion — of giving twice what is asked, of selling all that one has and giving to the poor, of going two miles when the service of a mile's journey is required, of non-resistance even to malicious demands — these are indeed noble ideals and they have each their part in lighting our path.

It is all very well to feel compassion for the poor, and to act under the guidance of the compassionate impulse alone when the distress which arouses our pity is due to some convulsion of nature, to some unforseeable external calamity. It is all very well not to withhold the hand from the poor if the unfortunate whom we would succor can be made to stand by our friendly service. There is abundant opportunity to-day in every community for charity, for consecrated personal service of these kinds.

The modern philanthropy, reverently recognizing all this, is still unsatisfied. Some with the blind passion of outraged humanity, and some with the patient insistence of the scientific spirit, are giving evidence of a desire to ascertain why it is that inmates come into our public and private charitable institutions, from foundling hospital to pauper grave, and into our insane asylums, prisons, reformatories, and probation schemes, faster than all our educational processes, our relief funds, and even our consecrated personal service have thus far been able to put the dependents and the delinquents again upon their feet; and why it is that out just beyond the recognized social debtors whom we support there is so large a number whose standards of living are intolerably low, giving constant menace to the health and safety of their children and their neighbors, sources of possible moral and physical infection to all with whom they come into any kind of social or industrial contact.

If I have rightly conceived the dominant idea of the modern philanthropy it is embodied in a determination to *seek out and to strike effectively at those organized forces of evil, at those particular causes of dependence and intolerable living conditions which are beyond the control of the individuals whom they injure and whom they too often destroy.*

Other tasks for other ages. This be the glory of ours, that the social causes of dependence shall be destroyed. Other work for other agencies. This be the chosen field of philanthropy, that relief shall come at last to those who in the very nature of the case — the child, the sick, the weak — cannot help themselves.

No doubt there are individual as well as social causes of dependence. No doubt the poor, like the rich, have their faults and weaknesses, the consequences of which recoil upon them-

selves. The moral and religious teachers of the nation, from pulpit, schoolroom, public press and fireside, have their responsibilities for opening the eyes that are blind, for inculcating good habits, and preaching the sermons for which there are everywhere such obvious texts. But since such faults and follies, such weaknesses and sins, are peculiar to no one class, since they are quite as abundant among those who give as among those who receive aid, may we not profitably turn to this other group of evils, evils from which the poor suffer grievously but against which they cannot effectively protect themselves?

I ask your attention to the common element in alcoholism as encouraged by the Liquor Trust; the cigarette evil as fostered by the Tobacco Trust; broken health and exhausted resources directly due to poisonous and fraudulent proprietary medicines; other injuries of a similar kind for which manufacturers and sellers of adulterated foods are responsible; the manufacturer of sweated goods, with a sharing of the profit between dealer and consumer; the destruction of the health and the sacrifice of the lives of little children in cotton factories, coal mines, glass factories, and tenement house industries, for the sake of their employers' profits, although in some instances also for their parents' greed; the sending of messenger boys of tender years to brothels and hotels, to their grave moral injury, that the difference between their wages and the wages of men may go to swell the dividends of a great corporation; the abduction of innocent country girls at hotels and railway stations as a systematic industry, not merely to gratify the evil passions of individuals but also in order that the owners of houses in which prostitution is carried on may receive larger rents, and the renter more substantial profits; the payment of less than a living wage to girls in stores and factories, with sickening indifference to the methods by which the remainder is secured; the organized gambling schemes at race track and in pool room which hold their own in the Empire State by open and shameless bribe to the county fairs; the erection and management of dwellings which are dark, unsanitary, and indecent, because they are among the gilt-edged investments, yielding not five or six but ten and twenty-five per cent on the capital risked by the speculative builder, but yielding also a goodly harvest of tuberculosis and other diseases; yellow journalism avowedly pandering in the

one class of journals to a feverish love for excitement and in the other, usually sold at a higher price, to a morbid desire for salacious literature and suggestive advertisements, but both, as always, for pecuniary profit.

It is a long list, but it is by no means complete. Are not these, and other forces of a like kind, really responsible for the continual accession to the numbers of those who with their children come at last to require our help? And is there not a common element in all these agencies of the evil one, widely as they differ from one another and divergent as their origins and their natural history may seem to be? The love of money is their common root. And this root of these evils, and, as a higher authority has declared, of all evil, is not, at least so far as these evils are concerned, an abstraction, an impersonal devil. On the contrary, it is embodied capital appearing at legislative hearings, or quite as often in the legislature itself, pleading against reform the rights of property, the sacredness of vested interests, the burdensome cost of each measure for the public good, raising the dust of argument to conceal the heavy cost of inaction and neglect.

The plea is made in the name of the rights of property, in the name of legitimate business, but it is a false plea and no legitimate business stands upon so frail a foundation. There are broad-minded, warm-hearted, hard-headed business men to give the lie to the false plea in every branch of industry. If it were not so we would all become socialists at once, and have done with an industrial order which must be carried on upon so low a level. Industrial progress has reached a point long since which makes the exploitation of the weak unnecessary. It was always a losing phase of industry when judged from the standpoint of the common good. With the progress in the arts and sciences, with the increased accumulations of capital, with a greater efficiency of labor, with a division of work and an organization of industry as wide as the earth, there remains not a shred of excuse for the employment of little children, for unsanitary tenements, for fraudulent food, or for any other phase of manufacture or commerce or living conditions which being interpreted means simply the exploitation of the weak. Legitimate business does not require it, and where it exists, as it does exist on every hand, its motive is predatory, — pecuniary

gain for an individual with absolutely no social utility to correspond.

Business enterprise invests in improved machinery; business exploitation prefers to use up the lives of children. Business enterprise assumes the cost of accidents and by assuming it learns how to avoid them; business exploitation throws the cost upon the widows and children of those who are sacrificed and pays of its surplus to commercial insurance companies which make their profits by fighting suits for damages instead of lessening accidents. Business exploitation preys upon the weaknesses of men; business enterprise develops their strength.

The reason why there is need in our day as never before for organized, concerted action against these serried forces of evil, is that there is already organized aggressive action on the other side. It is the financial interest threatened in any reform which makes reform difficult or impossible. Housing reform might still be difficult even if there were not a strong pecuniary interest at stake in the building and renting of unreformed tenements. But it would be easier than it is. Child labor would come to an end in a twelve-month if there were not money to be made in the exploitation of child labor. The gigantic fraud of proprietary medicines would have been exposed and ended long since except for the advertising contracts and for that part of the $100,000,000 annual sale which is illegitimate, for the cocaine manufacturers admit that at least 20 per cent of their output is illegitimately used. The Pure Food bill would have passed the Senate ten years earlier at least if the interests which are involved in the manufacture and sale of impure or dishonestly named foods had not appeared year after year in opposition to the health boards and the reformers.

The Consumers' League would have more success in its efforts if the love of a bargain ingrained in the purchaser were not reinforced by the margin of profit which remains in sweat shop products even after their price is fixed at a comparatively low level. The task of the temperance reformers would be enormously simplified if they had only to persuade the intemperate to mend their ways and to convince the young that abstinence is better for them than indulgence. I do not underestimate the difficulty of even this positive and necessary work. But what we now have to do in addition, and what we are thus

far succeeding very indifferently in doing, is to fight and overcome a powerful organized financial interest, which is behind the saloon, and which is responsible, if there is such a thing as the moral law, for a very large proportion of the alcoholics in our hospitals for the insane, of the "drunk-and-disorderlies" in our jails and prisons, of the non-support cases with which our charitable societies deal, of the dependent children whose parents are finally adjudged to be unfit guardians.

I have yet to find the reform movement or the philanthropic undertaking which does not at some point or other see its efforts thwarted by some organized opposition which has its root in pecuniary profit — unholy, obviously illegal profit, or it may be quite as often outwardly respectable profit, sanctioned by law, and sharing, it may be, with church and philanthropy, but none the less at bottom anti-social, injurious to health or morals, worthy to be outlawed as soon as its evil nature is understood.

In this warfare against the active pernicious forces of evil in our modern communities the first need is for information. We are all culpably, incredibly ignorant of the very things which it would be most to our advantage and most to our credit to know. I deliberately charge the temperance reformers in this Conference, and there are not so many here as there should be, with complete ignorance as to the reasons for the existence of inebriates. We are wandering in the wilderness of the prejudices and traditions of the temperance crusade. We think men drink because they have not taken a pledge, or because they have not been taught from certain elementary text-books of physiology, or because saloons are licensed, or licensed for too small a sum — but of the far more powerful influences which have their roots in greed we hear nothing at all, or only such vague denunciations as are evidently without solid foundations in fearless and exhaustive inquiry.

I charge the managers and officers of institutions for the care of children with ignorance of the causes which have led to the orphanage or the neglect of their wards. Are they on our hands because of essential vices and weaknesses of their parents, or because they were the victims of needless accidents, preventable disease, or industrial exploitation? I have yet to find the report of an asylum or reformatory that deals intelligently and

fearlessly with these questions. And yet what questions more pertinent than these can be conceived?

I charge the hospitals — directors, superintendents and physicians alike — with equal indifference or neglect. If things are taken down in the patients' statements on admission to be filed away in the office, if they are guessed at by wise physicians, or told to the nurses in the confidences of convalescence, which being blazoned abroad would furnish food for scandal, they are at least not tabulated and set forth in order by the hospitals so that we may shape legislation and social policies upon them. What we get instead is an appeal for funds to build and equip new wards, or at most a technical classification of diseases of which the economic and social significance is not at all understood.

Most of all I am constrained to charge my brethren in the charity organization movement itself, which stands pre-eminently for analysis of causes and thorough investigation, with not having at all appreciated the importance of the environmental causes of distress, with having fixed their attention far too much upon personal weaknesses and accidents and having too little sought for the evils which might yield to social treatment and for the anti-social actions of other men for which our cases are paying the penalty.

It has been natural when we have seen an indigent consumptive with his hollow cheeks, or a worthless beggar with no signs of manhood left, or a premature little old man of fourteen whose life is apparently done, the fires of his energy all burned out before his time, to ask ourselves what was the personal weakness of this poor fellow, or what was his peculiar misfortune that he has thus been beaten in his struggle with life. Has he sinned or his parents that he has thus pitifully lost his chance? There was a place for that inquiry and it did credit to our humane instincts. But would it not be more profitable for us to ask a different question? Will it not be more natural for us to ask, in the spirit of the modern philanthropy, not what is his weakness, but who has exploited him for personal profit? The two inquiries, to be sure, often come nearly to the same thing — for it is of course on the side of our personal weakness that we are most easily exploited, but it may be that the economic inquiry will lead us to a fuller understanding of what has happened, and

to some more rational course of action for the protection of others, than the moral inquiry which does not go beyond the personal character of the individual victim.

We have long recognized that the process of pauperization requires a conjunction of moral weakness in the recipient with unwise alms on the part of the donor. Is it not time to recognize that practically all the other forms of degeneracy and dependence require at some stage or other a conjunction of some inherited or acquired weakness in the individual and an overt temptation or an unfavorable condition external to him which would ordinarily not be presented at all if it were not to the advantage, apparently, of another party to the transaction? *The most profitable task of modern philanthropy is to find this other party and to deal by radical methods with him.*

My friends, I cannot pretend that this is an easy task. But if we look about, we must, I think, admit with profound conviction that the alternative of continuing to care for the fallen and the helpless is also no easy task. The insane and imbecile, the sick and disabled, the widow and the orphan, the immigrant and the unemployed, the intemperate, the delinquent — the social wreckage of every description — would it not be better if we could by any means lessen its amount? The financial burden of the dependence which we now have we measure in part, but the whole extent of it no man knows, and the crushing weight of it is heaviest upon the poor who are themselves upon the margin of dependence. If we accept the alternative, that we will throw our energies, so far as our present actual responsibility for the relief of distress will permit, into concerted, organized action against those forces, organized and alert as they are, which flourish by exploiting the weakness of the poor — or of rich and poor alike — we shall find, I repeat, discouraging aspects in the position of our adversaries. The ablest lawyers are retained in their service. Vested interests will appeal, not without just grounds in some instances, to the conservatism of the courts. Inertia, indifference, ignorance, prejudice, and a thousand complications will rise like stone walls before us, and the walls may be covered, as some modern military defenses have been, with barbed wire to lacerate and annoy us.

Against all these obstacles we shall have on our side the spirit of modern philanthropy. But it is enough; for it compre-

hends justice. Its aim is conservative; to re-establish the principle of individual responsibility upon the more sure basis of a nearer approach to equality of opportunity. Its method is radical: to strike hard with every weapon which is at hand against the organized forces of corruption, injustice and predatory greed.

II.

Conference Sermon.*

BY REV. JAMES M. BUCKLEY, D. D., EDITOR OF THE CHRISTIAN ADVOCATE.

"They helped every one his neighbor; and every one said to his brother, Be of good courage." Isaiah xli, 6.

Would not these words fitly describe a perfect society? Do they not express the elements of that perfection? But is there any nation, city, town or village of which this can be truly said?

Yet if this alone were said it might represent a society by no means perfect. The crew of a pirate ship might "help every one his neighbor," and every one might say to his brother, "Be of good courage," and all might deserve destruction for their crimes. It is only when these qualities are displayed in the whole life, and when each citizen cherishes and illustrates a philanthropic spirit that these words describe the ideal social state to which not even the mythical Golden Age of any nation's past attained. The words of the text are selected, not to prove a doctrine nor to demonstrate the perfection of those to whom they were applied, but to state in the simplest form the true relations of man to man.

The preamble of the rules of procedure for the National Conference of Charities and Correction is as follows: "The National Conference of Charities exists to discuss the problems of Charities and Correction, to disseminate information and promote reforms." It originated in informal meetings of two or three Western State Boards of Charity and in the American Social Science Association. For five years it was practically a department of that Association, and then became independent.

Records of antiquity may be searched in vain to find a par-

* This discourse was delivered extemporaneously and its substance was subsequently dictated to a stenographer.

allel to boards of charity or to social science associations or to the conception of such a Conference as this.

Two thousand years ago, with the exception of one people, IDOLATRY universally existed and everywhere was accompanied by vice and cruelty. People of all lands offered human sacrifices in worship. The primeval inhabitants of Palestine, the Trojans, the Carthaginians (who after one defeat in battle offered up two hundred children, sons of their chief citizens), the Gauls and the Germans sacrificed human beings to their gods; and the Romans did the same till the practice was abolished by the Senate. Afterwards thousands were sacrificed in the gladiatorial shows, though not offered to appease the gods. The great oracles, such as Delphi, appointed human sacrifices. Our ancestors, the inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, were enslaved by similar superstitions. Priestcraft was practically the synonym for cruelty.

WAR also was universal. Hobbes and other philosophers had an immense amount of reason for declaring that war was "woven into men's very nature." It was common for conquerors to murder all their opponents, male and female, and extraordinary tortures were invented. Roman conquerors, among the most civilized, pursued such a course that it is not extravagant to affirm that "all the strength of their understanding of the might and resources of their empire was consecrated to war." The wars of the Romans in Italy, Spain and Sicily alone consumed 1,500,000 men in the space of seventeen years.

It is remarkable that most of the philosophers and moralists never appear to have systematically discouraged war, though they often dwelt on its horrors. They wrote wisely and beautifully in favor of peace, but "the conception that war could ever be entirely abolished seems to have been foreign to their minds." Lucian complains of the civil wars, "not on the ground that so much blood was shed, but that it was not shed elsewhere." He more than implied that if the Romans had shed in war with other powers the blood that had been shed in war with one another, they would have added new countries to their empire. It has often been affirmed and can hardly be denied that among them "the path to immortality was to lead forth armies, waste the lands of strangers, destroy cities, and overthrow towns; that he who shed most blood was deemed the best and worthiest man, most like the gods."

CASTE was general. Tacitus said of the Jews, "They are inflexible in their faith and adherence one to another, but towards the whole human race besides they retain deadly and implacable hatred. With all others they refuse to eat, with all others to lodge." Juvenal says, "Trained to look with scorn upon the laws of Rome, they studied and observed and reverenced those Jewish statutes that Moses in his mystic volume handed down." The Jews and Gentiles were antagonistic, and equally so were the Jews and Samaritans; these would not enter each other's houses, sit at the same table, warm themselves by the same fire, or willingly touch each other's garments. To this day in India castes are almost infinite.

SLAVERY was universal, and that without distinction of color. When Athens had only 21,000 citizens it had 40,000 slaves. On the little island of Aegina there were 4,700 slaves. Home-born slaves were sometimes well treated, but those secured in conquest were dealt with as beasts. Tacitus says that when a certain Roman was found murdered in his own house, slaves to the number of four hundred were instantly put to death, and this was according to ancient custom. Sometimes in youthful frolics, hundreds of slaves were murdered in the streets and highways. Thucydides gives an account of two thousand Lacedemonian slaves who were promised their freedom and led around the streets of Sparta in triumph, with garlands on their heads, but soon disappeared, having been secretly destroyed. There was a law that they were not to use their slaves cruelly in times of war, but this was done, not from motives of humanity, but to prevent them from taking advantage of the war to shake off their shackles.

CRUEL SPORTS AND DIVERSIONS were universal, of which the bull fights of Spain, Mexico and Southern France are survivals, also cock fights, dog fights and prize fights. For ages the gladiators were generally slaves or purchased captives. Sometimes one of these held up his finger to implore the mercy of the spectators, and in some cases they spared; but if he had not pleased the people by contempt and recklessness of life, they cried, "Stab him."

Titus compelled multitudes of the Jewish captives to fight with each other in the games, and others of them with savage beasts. Trajan exhibited gladiatorial fights for 123 days in suc-

cession, and 10,000 human beings were sacrificed in that sport. Cicero says these were frequented beyond all other shows, by all ranks. Seneca records that if on any occasion combatants showed an unwillingness to die or destroy each other, the people were angry. Philosophers and moralists took part in these shows till Lactantius thus sternly rebuked them: "They say many things finally about the contempt of pleasure, the pursuit of wisdom, but while they exhort us so beautifully to a contempt of things earthly, and urge us to contemplate the heavens above, they do not contemn these public spectacles, but are themselves delighted with and freely take a part in them."

The universal voice of history concerning LICENTIOUSNESS is pitched in a most shocking tone whenever the subject is treated. Gibbon, unwilling to describe its horrors in English, resorts to untranslated Latin in his foot notes. Mommsen also confirms and expands the dreadful tale. These great historians find this evil pervading the thousand "nations" with which Rome had relations. Certain forms of moral refinement existed in Greece and Rome, but where they were not merely theoretical there were few who applied them in their daily conduct. Plato declared that good men should receive all strangers, male and female, "thus honoring Zeus, who presides over hospitality." He also recommends entertaining mendicants at feasts and "those who are in need of a hearty meal," and gives as a reason for this that they "will greet and follow us and will come to our doors, and feel the utmost gratitude, and pray for many blessings upon us."

Cicero says: "In conferring or requiting kindness, the chief rule of our duty ought to be, if all other circumstances are equal, to confer most upon the man who stands in greatest need of assistance. The reverse of this is practiced by the generality, who direct their greatest services to the man from whom they hope the most, though he may stand in no need of them."

Lucian says: "When a rich man treats his domestics, let his friends assist him in waiting on them."

Hesiod observes sententiously —

"The man of sin is he confessed
Who spurns the suppliant and who wrongs the guest."

In general OLD AGE was honored by the whole ancient world. Herodotus says, however, that with the exception of the Lacede-

monians, the Egyptians surpassed the Greeks in reverence for old age.

Where cruel sports, caste, slavery, war and licentiousness dominate, sensibility must be deadened, and genuine humanity if it exists at all, can dwell only in a few choice spirits, scorned or misunderstood by multitudes and hated by those whom they reprove. A just and dominant conscience is impossible where war is the highest ambition and cruel sports the popular recreation. Whatever the religion or philosophy professed, priestcraft, licentiousness and caste will control conventionalities and sustain a false conscience. Plato and Aristotle may reason, Seneca may philosophize, but the populace will gratify their passions. The Hebrews received from their ancient lawgivers excellent laws concerning the poor, the aged, the widowed, the fatherless, and the stranger, yet in war they spared neither women nor children. For this they were most sternly rebuked by their prophets and often in the name of God.

"Is not this the fast that I have chosen? to loose the bands of wickedness, to undo the heavy burdens, and to let the oppressed go free, and that ye break every yoke? Is it not to deal thy bread to the hungry, and that thou bring the poor that are cast out to thy house? when thou seest the naked, that thou cover him; and that thou hide not thyself from thine own flesh?"

The rules of the Hebrews were better than any found in the nations, though they were by no means practiced in all generations. Hezekiah reached the highest point, and of him it was said, "The liberal deviseth liberal things; and by liberal things shall he stand."

II.

This gloomy retrospect may serve as a background for the presentation of the spirit and precepts of Christ.

The world has vastly changed, and for the better. Those who hold an opposite view have either failed to read the history of mankind or have forgotten it, or they unduly concentrate their minds upon the remaining evils. Every fundamental principle adopted by the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and the institutional and individual works which it commends are anticipated, supported and illustrated by the life, the spirit, the precepts of Christ. The sphere of contemplation, investiga-

tion, and condemnation or recommendation covered by the Conference includes DEFECTIVES, DEPENDENTS, and DELINQUENTS.

DEFECTIVES.

Defectives include (1) idiots of different grades. (2) Imbeciles, this word being used as synonomous with feeble-minded; but while imbeciles are feeble-minded, there is a distinction when nearly a lifelong physical condition is the sole cause for the feeble-mindedness. (3) The physically deformed. (4) The blind and the deaf.

DEPENDENTS.

Dependents include (1) The poor in the two grades of paupers and indigents,— the former often being on the verge of imbecility or reduced by vice or crime to a state of pauperism. The indigent may possess a little property, but not sufficient to support them or to pay for their support institutionally. (2) Those not wholly helpless, yet not able to support themselves without help at their homes. (3) The sick or maimed. (4) The epileptic. (5) The insane. (6) Minor children, orphan or half orphan, or, more unfortunate, those born out of wedlock or having drunkards or criminals as parents. (7) The aged without means of support. These are a special class. (8) The stranger in extremity. (9) The temporarily dependent. This division includes those suffering from local disaster, such as freshets and fires, wholesale calamity, as seen in Martinique and within the range of the devastating forces of Vesuvius, and — most fearfully emphasizing the division — the earthquake at San Francisco. Stringency in the financial world and panics which destroy wealth, stagnate commerce, and raise prices, at the same time diminishing revenue, bring on a large class of additional misfortunes; while at all times many from sickness and accident are temporarily dependent.

DELINQUENTS.

These are: (1) Youths guilty of misdemeanors or crimes. (2) Those who will not work, thus being criminally dependent. These are the chief constituents of the ignoble and dangerous army of tramps. (3) Drunkards; loafers; keepers and frequenters of saloons and gambling places; and the inmates and

visitors of houses where each sex systematically strives to deprave the other. (4) Adult criminals of every type, habitual or occasional.

III.

It is with these that the National Conference of Charities and Correction deals, and all our methods are supported, prescribed and illustrated by Christ and His apostles. Naturally we turn first to the Golden Rule. It rests upon an inward principle, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." The outward measure is correspondent to the inward principle, "All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them; for this is the law and the prophets." Then follow the specific precepts. Punishment is not ignored, but to criminals Christ showed mercy and aided them to reform. He inculcated the duty of assisting such. The most striking illustrations are Christ's attitude toward the woman taken in adultery, his words concerning the victims of the tower of Siloam, and His treatment of the dying thief. Some careless readers of the New Testament have supposed that such treatment of criminals and sinners indicated that Christ found no place for punishment; whereas He declared it to be the prerogative of God to inflict it, and also of human government. The parable of the unmerciful servant, the parable of the creditor and the two debtors, of the prodigal son, and of the lost sheep, all assume penitence and reform. Christ's words were, "Sin no more, lest a worse thing come unto thee." His disciples were to show mercy and proffer help, to give instruction, to share their own possessions with the needy.

The parable of the good Samaritan is the consummation of His teaching.

The miracles of Christ dealt with the defectives, the dependents and the delinquents. Nearly every one of the parables can be used specifically to support the work of this institution. He healed those who were "sick of a fever," those suffering from palsy. The loathsome leper and the impotent man were by Him restored to perfect soundness. Hemorrhages, dropsy and lameness fled before His touch. Epileptics and lunatics were restored, the one to physical, and the other to mental self-control. The blind received their sight, the dumb spake, and the deaf were made to hear. The last miracle recorded of Christ was one of surgery, the replacing an ear which a disciple had rashly ampu-

tated. These selections from infinite opportunities for the display of divine power were not made by accident or chance; they were part of the lesson of philanthropy which He came to teach. "Go, and do thou likewise" according to thy measure individually and co-operatively. Christ's philosophy was this, "Ye are God's children; as He has been beneficent to you be ye also toward your brothers. This only will be irrefutable evidence of your devotion to Me."

Blind are they who fancy that the slow development of civilization wholly accounts for the philanthropic impulses and institutions of the present age. The teachings, the Spirit, and the example of Christ, struck the first telling blows against the cruelty, superstition, licentiousness, and selfishness of the ancient civilization. And though its remnants persist to this day, Christ is the same moral force and intellectual light which prevents the re-enthronement of self-love and the reinstatement of the sensuous and the sensual as its ministers. Christ recognizes nothing as spiritual that is not philanthropic, nor admits philanthropy to be perfect that is not spiritual. Therefore in His dramatic yet absolutely simple delineation of the final estimates of human character, conduct, and desert, he speaks of the hungry, the thirsty, the stranger, the naked, the sick, and the prisoner, condemning those who sympathized not with them, nor helped them, but saying unto them that ministered unto them, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto Me."

III.

Reports from States.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

The reports are modeled on the plan which has now been in use for several years. Some modifications may be needed, but it seems desirable to persevere in the same plan until approximate uniformity of report from the different states shall be secured.

Although some of the reports have been condensed, almost unduly, by the committee, they are still larger than usual. The varied and vital interests with which they deal will fully make up for their undue length.

Several states, notably Kentucky and Maryland, report an unusually large amount of legislation in the departments of charity and correction. The tendency towards juvenile court and probation laws seems strong.

ARKANSAS.

PROFESSOR J. H. REYNOLDS, FAYETTEVILLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Legislature in April, 1905, passed a law creating a state reformatory for the benefit of prisoners under twenty years of age. The law requires the purchase of a farm, the building of suitable buildings on the farm, creates the office of superintendent to supervise. The prisoners sentenced to the penitentiary when they are under eighteen or twenty years of age are sent to the Reform School. The law divides the time of the inmates between work on the farm and attending school. They are to be taught not only literary subjects but some practical business for life. The board of control consists of three state officers.

* The statistical part of these reports appear as Appendix H, p. 630.

COLORADO.

CLARENCE E. HAGAR, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session of the Legislature since the last National Conference.

Needs.

Our principal needs at the present time, on account of our over-crowded state institutions, are:

First. Another State Hospital for the Insane; a Home for the feeble minded; and a radical change in the system now in vogue in our State Industrial School for Girls; to more thoroughly establish Juvenile Courts in every county within our state; industrial trades in our penal institutions; to establish a home for the wives and widows of the old soldiers and sailors; the necessity for more State Agents to look after paroled prisoners seeking employment for them, and in every way encouraging them to keep their parole and become good and useful citizens.

Second. Amendment of Law providing for the application of the probation system to first offenders between the ages of 17 and 24.

CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES P. KELLOGG, SECRETARY STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

There was no session of the Connecticut Legislature during the past year. Several matters, however, which were pending at the time of the last report may be mentioned, as follows:

An effort to obtain a State Reformatory failed largely on account of the size of the appropriation, $400,000.00, recommended by the committee appointed to consider the matter. The report of the committee was continued until next session of the Legislature, but the committee considers itself dismissed and the work ended so far as it is concerned.

The amendments which were introduced to improve the indeterminate sentence law also failed of passage and the law in its present application by the courts is very unsatisfactory.

So small an interval is allowed in many cases between the minimum and maximum limits of the sentences that the value of the law as a reformatory measure is nullified.

The measure introduced to provide for the commitment of dependent children to private chartered orphan asylums and their support there by the State was also defeated.

The bill which was introduced to provide for certain restrictions in the construction of new tenement houses, as regards size of rooms, window openings and amount of lot covered by building, was favorably reported and passed.

New Developments.

An appropriation of $420,000.00 was made by the Legislature of 1905 to provide for buildings at the new State Hospital for the Insane at Norwich. These buildings are to include two ward buildings to accommodate one hundred and fifty patients each, heating plant, power plant, central kitchen and laundry and connecting corridors. The complete design of the hospital provides for an institution to accommodate one thousand inmates.

The House of the Good Shepherd, in Hartford, is constructing a large building to accommodate three hundred young women. Upon its completion it is expected that it will receive a considerable number of young women offenders between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years, for whose commitment to such institution provision was made in an act of the Legislature of 1905.

No new institutions have been established during the past year, but extensive additions have been made at St. Francis Hospital, in Hartford, St. Mary's Home for the Aged, West Hartford, and the St. Francis Orphan Asylum, New Haven.

St. Vincent's Hospital, in Bridgeport, was opened for the reception of patients in July, 1905.

Needs.

The need of a State Reformatory for young men from sixteen to twenty-five years of age is still strongly felt. The opposing influences are so strong, however, that a great effort will have to be made to secure even a start in this direction. The need of a reformatory for young women over sixteen years of age is also very urgent.

A separate institution for the care and treatment of epileptics is also greatly desired, and a report on the subject is expected in the next Legislature from a State commission which has been appointed for the purpose.

DELAWARE.

MRE. EMALEA P. WARNER, WILMINGTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

Factory inspector appointed under the Child Labor Law.
Society for Prevention of Tuberculosis.
State Consumers' League.
Institution for the Blind.

Needs.

Juvenile Court, Compulsory Education, Better Provision for Defectives. Provision for other contagious diseases than smallpox.

Remarks.

The State makes but slow progress in some respects, but public spirit is awakening and the future looks brighter in many ways.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

GEORGE S. WILSON, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF CHARITIES, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Since last report, the juvenile court bill has been passed, providing for a separate court for the trial of cases involving children under 17 years of age. The bill provides that the court "shall have original and exclusive jurisdiction of all crimes and offenses of persons under 17 years of age hereafter committed against the United States, not capital or otherwise infamous, and not punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary, committed in the District of Columbia, except libel, conspiracy, and violations of the postoffice and pension laws of the United States, and also of all offences of persons under 17 years of age hereafter committed against the laws, ordinances and regulations of the District of Columbia." The court is given jurisdiction, concur-

rently with the criminal court, in cases of parents or guardians who refuse or neglect to provide for children under fourteen years of age. The court is also given jurisdiction over dependency as well as delinquency, and hereafter all children placed in public institutions as dependents must have been so declared by the juvenile court. The bill provides for two probation officers; also for the punishment of parents, guardians, or others having custody of children, who are found guilty of contributing to the delinquency of the children.

An act has also been passed "making it a misdemeanor in the District of Columbia to abandon or wilfully neglect to provide for the support and maintenance by any person of his wife or of his or her minor children in destitute or necessitous circumstances." Heretofore, the law has provided only for the punishment of persons guilty of neglect to support their minor children. This law includes the support of the wife.

Several other important bills are now pending in Congress, some of them having passed one of the Houses, and it is quite probable that some of them will become law before the close of the present session. Among the more important of these bills are those dealing with child labor, compulsory education, the abatement of nuisances, and the destruction of unsanitary buildings.

Needs.

As reported last year, our most pressing need still is for the care of indigent consumptives. A very active campaign has been made the past fall and winter to secure an appropriation for the establishment of a hospital for the care of these patients. The matter has been presented to the committee on appropriations of the House of Representatives, and has not yet been reported upon. It is hoped and believed that a favorable report will be made upon this request.

There is also need for legislation on the subject of child labor, compulsory education, and the improvement of housing conditions, all of which subjects are dealt with in the bills now pending, above referred to.

Another pressing need is for more adequate means for the treatment of the feeble minded and the epileptic. At present the feeble minded are cared for in institutions outside the District of Columbia, and it has been impossible to secure proper treat-

ment for colored feeble minded persons. The only provision for epileptics is in the hospital for the insane.

GEORGIA.

DR. T. D. LONGINO, ATLANTA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Report to follow.

Remarks.

The State is now building a Juvenile Reformatory at Milledgeville, which when completed will have room for 125 Juvenile offenders.

We have no State Conference of Charities so far, but an effort will be made to organize one this year.

ILLINOIS.

J. MACK TANNER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

There has been no legislative session since the National Conference of 1905, so that matters pertaining to legislation have been limited to the maturing of plans to enforce the laws noted in our report of last year, particularly those relating to Civil service, and State Visitation of Children.

The classified civil service list, embraces the state visitors of children, and all the employes in the seventeen state charitable institutions; the superintendents, their stenographers and the chief clerks alone excepted. The penal institutions, and the State Reformatory are not under civil service.

The Civil Service Board first classified the employes of the state charitable institutions, and thereafter selected examining boards, for the several classes of employes, from the citizens at large, to prepare questions and examine applicants. Examinations have already been held for visitors, physicians, and attendants, with very satisfactory results.

We have been particularly impressed with the value and need of state visitation of children. In the short time of six

months, the work of our State Agent has disclosed a great lack of appreciation of the welfare of children among the private institutions, when beyond the limits of their own walls. Already is greater care being shown in investigating homes, prior to placement, and in supervising the children thereafter. Institutions are becoming impressed with the earnestness of those who have in charge the enforcement of the law, and are supplementing their efforts by a ready compliance with all requests for information and suggestions for betterment by the State Board.

Open porch cottages, with colored glass sun room adjoining, have been built at the Western Hospital for the Insane, for the treatment of tubercular patients. This with the small tent colonies at the Bartonville Asylum for Insane, and the Soldiers' Home, mark the initial movement in Illinois, towards a general policy of State care of consumptives.

The displacement of male attendants, by female attendants, on the male wards at the Bartonville Asylum for the Incurable Insane, has aroused some criticism on the one hand, and favorable comment on the other, as has also the removal of all iron bars and gratings from the doors and windows of the institution. The superintendent gives cogent reasons for these changes, and sustains himself well in his policy.

The State Board of Charities has been re-organized by the appointment of Dr. Frank Billings, as President, and W. C. Graves, as Secretary. It is understood that the new Board will strongly urge the establishment of a State Consumptive Sanatorium, and a State Colony for Epileptics, the latter of which has been recommended by previous Boards.

INDIANA.

AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY, BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

The General Assembly of Indiana meets biennially. No session has been held since our last report, and there is therefore nothing to record under the head of "Legislation." However, there has been considerable activity in the State within the past year as a result of the laws passed by the Legislature of 1905.

A tract of 1,228 acres of land has been purchased for the

site of the Indiana Village for Epileptics. The price paid was $100 per acre. A small beginning will be made with the balance of the appropriation. The site of the new Southeastern Hospital for Insane has also been selected. It is a farm containing 357 acres on the bluff overlooking the Ohio River, adjoining the city of Madison. The commission having in charge the re-location of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, now in the city of Indianapolis, has sold the present grounds and purchased a tract of eighty acres lying four miles from the center of the city. A modified form of the cottage plan has been agreed upon and arrangements will be made early in April for advertising the letting of contracts. There will be twenty-two buildings in all. Work on the cottages for the new Industrial School for Girls, which is at present under the same roof with the Woman's Prison in Indianapolis, is progressing. The separation of the two institutions was authorized by the Legislature of 1903, but for various reasons it has not been possible until the present time to carry out the plans. The new location is on a farm of 127 acres, seven miles northwest of Indianapolis. Work on the two new buildings at the Northern Hospital for Insane and the new building for boys at the Indiana School for Feeble Minded Youth will begin when spring opens.

The destruction by fire of a number of the factory buildings at the State Prison made possible the erection of several new buildings. A new two-story store room, a fine one-story kitchen and dining room and a new storage building have been constructed. A chapel and a third cell block will be erected this year. Visits have been made to many State institutions throughout the country, to obtain the best ideas for these several buildings, and the architect has, so far as practicable, embodied their best features in his plans. The State Prison has established a binder twine plant. It began operations March 1, 1906.

The last Legislature provided for the employment of the inmates of the Reformatory under a trade school law. The products will be sold to the different State institutions and the civil and political divisions of the State, any surplus to be disposed of in the public market. There are two large manufactories, a chain works and a foundry, remaining in the institution, but they will be operated under this law. A beginning has been

made in establishing several trade schools, and some new construction has been built by the inmates.

We are very much pleased with the operations of the indeterminate sentence and parole law. Now that it has been in operation almost nine years, something definite can be stated as to its results. From the records of both the Reformatory and State Prison, which are carefully kept, of 8½ years work under it, the following information may be given:

Released on parole	3,192
Returned for violation of parole	418
Delinquent and at large	369
Discharged	1,737
Sentence expired while on parole	252
Died	62
Now reporting	354
Percent of unsatisfactory cases	24.6
Total earnings of the men	$777,697 56
Total expenses of the men	626,915 93
Balance	$150,781 63

The Marion County Juvenile Court, Indianapolis, is attracting considerable attention, not only in Indiana and other states, but in foreign countries. A distinguishing feature of the court is the long list of volunteer probation officers. There are 305 of these, of whom 172 have been in actual service and 133 are on the reserve list. Nearly 1,500 cases have been before the court since it was established in 1903. The contributory delinquency law of 1905 is proving very helpful.

The legislature of 1905 authorized the appointment of a commission to investigate the need of a State hospital for consumptives. It will report to the General Assembly in January, 1907.

The LaFayette Charity Organization Society is the only new organization of that class in the State. From time to time a new Board of County Charities is appointed. Of the ninety-two counties in the State, seventy-one now have such boards. Thirty-six counties have Boards of Children's Guardians. A new hospital has been opened at Bloomington, another is rapidly nearing completion in Indianapolis.

IOWA.

F. S. TREAT, SECRETARY BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

This Board has charge of the State Institutions, both Penal and Eleemosynary, and we have definite statistics regarding these. We also have the power to inspect County and Private Institutions where insane are kept, of which we keep definite statistics. But there is no compilation touching the population of County Prisons, Jails, County Alms Houses, Homes for the Aged or public or private Hospitals.

LEGISLATION.

The Legislature which has just adjourned passed a bill providing for the establishment of a Sanitarium for the Treatment of Tuberculosis.

This Sanitarium, when completed, will be open to all persons afflicted with pulmonary tuberculosis in the incipient stage and who show a reasonable probability of satisfactory improvement by treatment. Patients who are able to pay shall be charged a monthly rate not exceeding $20.00. This institution will be under the charge of the Board of Control.

The site must not contain less than one hundred sixty (160) acres of land, and it is the purpose of the Board that a portion of this be wooded, but the larger part suitable for agriculture so that the patients who are able may derive the benefit of out-door employment.

KANSAS.

PROF F. W. BLACKMAR, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, LAWRENCE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

LEGISLATION.

The Legislature has not met since the last report was made.

The Juvenile Court Law needs a few slight amendments as does the Board of Control Law. These are being prepared.

A bill to regulate jails is being prepared for the consideration of the next Legislature.

Needs.

There are no striking needs at the Institutions of Kansas at present. Methods of admission of insane to hospitals should be improved. There is a demand for more well-trained and efficient officials. Upon the whole the charitable and penal institutions of Kansas are in a satisfactory condition of progress.

KENTUCKY.

MISS EMMA A. GALLAGHER, LOUISVILLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The following is among the most important legislation of the session of 1906. Creating a non-partisan Board of Control for State Institutions of three members, one a physician, one a lawyer, one a business man, and abolishing the separate Boards of Trustees. Placing the control of the Reform School at Lexington in the hands of the Prison Commissioners; these two acts are supposedly in the interest of economy. Authorizing the two State Penitentiaries to establish hospitals for the tuberculous. Raising the age of consent from 12 to 16 years; providing that a man convicted of seduction shall marry his victim and live with her for three years, or else go to the penitentiary. An amendment provides that he may leave her if he has statutory grounds. Compelling children to support their indigent parents if able to do so, providing for Juvenile Courts in each county of the state.

Enabling the Fiscal Court of Jefferson county and the General Council of the city of Louisville to levy a tax of 2½ cents on the $100 to maintain a Sanatorium for tuberculous patients. The sanatorium is to be erected by private subscriptions.. Regulating the care, treatment and control of dependent, neglected and delinquent children.

New Developments, Institutions, etc., Completed or Begun.

An "All-Prayer" Foundlings' Home which is in succeesful operation.

A Home for Indigent Catholic men of Kentucky provided for by bequest of the late John D. O'Leary and named for him.

A Training School for Colored Women for teaching all kinds of industries, domestic and others.

The Brothers of the Hebrew Association are about establishing a home for needy Jewish strangers.

Needs.

A Reformatory for Women and better conditions in county poorhouses throughout the state are among the most urgent needs.

Remarks.

The State's action with regard to Juvenile Courts and hospitals for tuberculosis is largely due to the influence of the men's and women's clubs of the State.

LOUISIANA.

MICHEL HEYMANN, NEW ORLEANS, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

Two bills were passed by our legislature in 1904:

1st. Act No. 176, creating a State Board of Charities and Corrections; 2d. Act No. 173, to provide for the creation of a State Reform School for boys.

Both acts were without appropriations.

Needs.

Amendments to the two above acts, appropriating the necessary amounts for traveling expense, salary of a clerk, buying of land and building a Boys' Reform School.

Increase of appropriation to build additional dormitories for the insane.

Legislation to provide for labor for all convicted prisoners, either felons or misdemeanants.

MAINE.

EDWIN P. WENTWORTH, SUPERINTENDENT STATE SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

Legislation.

No session since last report.

Needs.

No change since last report in this respect. A strong appeal will be made to the next Legislature for the establishment of two or three new institutions for the care of defectives.

New Developments.

There is at the present time great interest in the Charities and Corrections of Maine and it seems to be constantly increasing.

MARYLAND.

NATHANIEL G. GRASTY, BALTIMORE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

CHILDREN.

Child Labor.

No children under 12 years of age shall be employed for wages or hire in any mill, factory, workshop, office, restaurant, hotel, apartment house, store, telephone or telegraph office or other establishment or business except in the counties from June first to October first. Farm labor is also excepted. The first exception permits work in the canneries in the country but not in Baltimore during the summer.

For children between 12 and 16, an employment permit is required which must give the date of birth, with birth certificate attached, the place of birth and a description of the child. It must state that the child can read at sight and write legibly simple sentences in English, and that he has reached a normal development and is in sound health and physically able to perform the work which he intends to do. This certificate must be sworn to by a parent or guardian and issued by the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information or some member of the local board of health. Factories, shops, etc., must keep posted a list of children employed. The penalty for violation of the law is not less than $5 nor more than $50, and for continuous employment after notice not less than $5 nor more than $20 per day. Employment permits must be returned to the child or the agency

issuing them when the child leaves the service of the employer, under penalty of a fine of $10. Any person knowingly signing a permit containing false statements is subject to a penalty of not more than $50.00

Six inspectors are authorized at a salary of $900 a year each to carry out the provisions of the law. They are to be appointed by the Chief of the Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information.

The Act takes effect September 1, 1906.

Probation Officers.

The Supreme Bench of Baltimore City is authorized to appoint two additional probation officers, at a salary of $1,200 a year each, for the City of Baltimore. These officers will work chiefly in the Juvenile Court, but may be employed by the judge of the Criminal Court.

Institutions.

Institutions are authorized to retain children committed to their care, male or female, until they reach the age of 21.

Infants.

In Baltimore City no midwife, institution or corporation not duly incorporated for the purpose, shall receive infants or young children for compensation without securing a license from the Board of Health. Applications for licenses must be endorsed by four reputable citizens. The Health Board must keep a record of the children received, giving name, address and date of birth and reception. The Board of Health must make a careful investigation of the institutions and the persons in charge. The penalty for violation of the law is $25.00. The Act does not apply to persons or homes recommended by the Supervisors of City Charities.

Deaf, Dumb and Blind. Compulsory Education.

Children between 6 and 16 years of age whose hearing or sight is so defective that they can not attend public schools must attend some school for the deaf or blind for eight months, or during the scholastic year, unless they are regularly receiving thorough instruction in studies usually taught in the public

schools for children of the same age. Children whose physical condition renders instruction inexpedient or impracticable are excepted. The penalty for failure on the part of parents or guardians to comply with the law is $5.00 for each offence. Any person inducing or preventing a child from attending school is subject to a fine of not over $50.

A census of deaf, blind and feeble-minded children between the ages of 6 and 16 years, inclusive, is provided for, to be taken by teachers and truant officers.

Feeble Minded.

The State Training School for the Feeble Minded is authorized to retain children under its care until a majority of the Board of Visitors think that the welfare of the child and the public interest justify a discharge.

Delinquent Children.

The name of the House of Refuge for Boys is changed to the Maryland School for Boys. The City of Baltimore is directed to appropriate $50,000 for new buildings for this school, to be located in the country.

The City is also directed to appropriate $50,000 for St. Mary's Industrial School, the Roman Catholic School for delinquents. The appropriation will be used for new buildings for boys under 10 years of age.

The City of Baltimore is authorized to contract with the Playgrounds Association of Baltimore City for the support of playgrounds.

TUBERCULOSIS.

The State Tuberculosis Sanatorium was incorporated. It is to be managed by a board of six trustees, to be appointed by the Governor. Their terms will be for six years each, two retiring every two years. $100,000 was appropriated for the buildings and $15,000 for maintenance for the year 1908.

$25,000 was also apropriated to the private hospital for Consumptives for new buildings and $5,000 a year for maintenance. This private institution will have about $40,000 for buildings from private gifts in addition to what is given by the State.

PENAL.

A commission of five persons, to be appointed by the Governor, is provided for to study the question of the indeterminate sentence and reformatory methods for criminals, and report to the next Legislature.

Several bills provide for working prisoners on roads, especially one permitting prisoners from the House of Correction to be worked on the boulevard to be built between Baltimore and Washington.

Tramps and vagrants may be committed to jail as well as to the House of Correction as at present, for periods of not less than two months nor more than one year.

Judges of courts are permitted, where the law prescribes a maximum and minimum penalty, to impose a less penalty than the minimum prescribed. This seems to do away entirely with all minimum penalties under the jurisdiction of the courts.

$134,000 was appropriated for a woman's building at the penitentiary. The City of Baltimore was authorized to make an appropriation of $50,000 for an annex to its jail.

BLIND.

The Governor is authorized to appoint a commission of five persons to serve without pay — "A Commission for Improving the Condition of the Adult Blind in the State of Maryland." They are required to secure a complete list of all blind persons in the State and record their names, ages, financial condition, cause and extent of their blindness, their capacity for educational and industrial training and such other facts as may seem of value. They shall report with recommendations to the Governor by December 31, 1907.

The Commission shall aid such adult blind persons as they consider worthy to find employment and may furnish material and tools at a cost not exceeding $50 to any one individual. They may place in Homes such indigent blind women as appear to them worthy and who have no other means of support. Expenditure on any woman is limited to $200 per annum. $500 is appropriated for the expenses of the Commission, and $3,000 a year for the care of the adult blind.

LOANS ON WAGES AND SALARIES.

Assignments of wages and salaries are declared invalid unless in writing and signed by the assignor and acknowledged before a justice of the peace and entered on the justice's docket. Notices of the assignment must be served within three days upon the employer. Assignments by married persons must be executed and acknowledged by the assignor's wife or husband. The assignor must take oath that he has not paid and will not pay more than six per cent interest.

Assignments of wages tainted with usury are void. Assignments of wages to be earned more than six months after the assignment shall be void. Courts of equity are authorized to enjoin the execution of any contracts forbidden by law.

VITAL STATISTICS.

The State Board of Health is authorized when any local registrar does not keep full and complete records, to take charge of the local office for three months, after giving the local board of health thirty days' notice. In case the registration does not exceed by ten per cent. that of the local registrar in the corresponding three months of the previous year, the State Board of Health shall pay the expenses for running the offices.

STATE SUPERVISION.

The Governor is authorized to appoint from time to time one or more discreet persons to attend meetings of boards of institutions receiving financial assistance from the State. Such representatives have no vote, but are entitled to be present at meetings of boards and to express their views.

ALMSHOUSES.

The name of county almshouses is changed to "County Homes."

MASSACHUSETTS.

JOSEPH LEE, BOSTON, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

LEGISLATION.

This report is written in the middle of our legislative season, and bills of interest to the conference are especially late, so that

the fate of most of them has not been settled. Perhaps the most notable legislative campaign of the year has been in behalf of the public health. This has consisted in three bills: First, a bill introduced by the Civic League providing (1) that every child who seems to his teacher to be in ill health or who shows signs of infectious disease, and every child returning after an absence caused by disease or from unknown cause, shall receive prompt medical examination; and that notice of the disease, if any, from which he is suffering shall be sent to his parents or guardian and, if it is an infectious disease, to the board of health. The bill also provides (2) that the sight and hearing of every child in the public schools shall be examined every year, and that such further examination shall be made as may be necessary to see whether he needs treatment and whether the school work ought to be modified in his case. The bill is well supported by educators and doctors. The other two bills forbid advertisements describing sexual disease, and provide that patent medicines shall have a label stating the percentage of alcohol. All three of these bills seem to have a fair prospect of success, though the last two are being very strenuously and ably opposed by the quacks.

A bill introduced by the State Board of Health, saying that milk cans shall not be returned dirty to the farmers, has been passed. This means that if the cans are used for swill or for miscellaneous collections of various sorts, they shall be washed out; and that milk shall not be left in them to turn sour.

Next, or perhaps first, in importance is the campaign for the juvenile court. A speaking tour in its interest made by Judge Lindsey during the winter was a notable case of the chickens coming home to roost. The egg of probation having been hatched in Massachusetts, this extremely vigorous bantam has returned and convinced us that we are no longer in the lead in such matters. Two bills, one establishing a juvenile court for the central district of the City of Boston, and the other for dealing with children in the state at large from the point of view of what can be made of them rather than that of what can be done to them, have been introduced and have been strenuously supported in about every constituency in the state. Our Judiciary Committee, in whose hands the bills still are, is a very strong and able one. We have fair hopes of a favorable report, and

when we get it, expect it to carry much weight. By "we," I mean the Massachusetts Prison Association and the Civic League.

The Women's Educational and Industrial Union has made a remarkable campaign in behalf of a bill regulating the assignment of wages. At the present writing it looks bad for the shark.

A commission on the Adult Blind seems likely to be established.

In the matter of labor legislation the "overtime" bill, forbidding the employment in textile manufacturing of any person under eighteen years of age or any woman between the hours of six P. M. and six A. M., was lost by a tie vote in the Senate. A bill extending the Boston law, secured by the Civic League in 1902, putting the licensing of the carrying on of street trades by persons under fourteen in the hands of the school committee, has been extended to cover all cities.

There have been four bills aimed at our two reform schools, the Lyman School for Boys and the Industrial School for Girls, as follows: A bill (still alive) providing that children shall stay three years in these schools before being placed out; one (opposed and killed by the Civil Service Reform Association) providing that civil service rules shall not apply to officers of the schools; one providing that a certain sum of money shall be appropriated for denominational religious instruction of the children in them (killed); and a bill for unopened correspondence between the State Board of Charity and persons in institutions under its visitation (passed). There is also a revival of last year's bill for reduced fares upon street and elevated railways for parochial school pupils. An additional appropriation was asked for (but has been refused) for the support of women cared for by institutions while on probation; and a bill has been killed providing that "any female who pleads or is found guilty of any offense" in the lower courts in Boston may be committed to any private charitable corporation existing for the reformation of females (meaning the House of the Good Shepherd), and that three dollars a week may be paid for her support. The subsidy feature of the last-mentioned bill was disapproved by some zealous and public-spirited Catholics. A bill providing that public money can be paid to private institutions receiving women re-

leased on probation by the Supreme Court is now before the House. The most interesting discussion on this class of legislation was in regard to the bill for denominational instruction in the reform schools. It was brought out that no church at present was remiss in its ministrations because of the failure to receive public funds for the work. On the other hand, it was urged by Catholics favoring the bill and by Jews opposing it that the present so-called non-sectarian services, though they were properly called non-sectarian while ours was a Protestant community, are so no longer; that from the Catholic or Jewish or Free Thinkers' point of view they were Protestant and sectarian, and that the present public support of these services is inconsistent with the Protestant position against the public support of sectarian teaching.

Remarks.

In December, 1905, all the insane then remaining in almshouses were removed to state institutions. It has been feared by the opponents of state support that it would result in leaving a greater number of insane persons to be supported by the public. The net increase for the year was, however, 174 as against 300 last year, and 332 the year before, the lesser increase being due to greater activity in carrying forward family care, to systematic endeavor to collect for the support of patients from their friends and relatives, and possibly to more careful inquiry as to the propriety of commitment in doubtful cases. There has been an increase of 40 in the number under family care, making the present total 253. In spite of the assumption of the care of the town insane, relief from extreme overcrowding has now been accomplished.

The annual report of the State Board of Insanity for 1906 points out the extremely important fact that during the last six years admission to the School for the Feeble Minded at Waltham — which is the only public provision for this class of persons — has been denied to about one thousand applicants for lack of room. Consequently feeble minded children are constantly appearing in almshouses, in the State Hospital (almshouse), and even in the insane hospitals. The Board points out that custodial care is required not only in the interests of the feeble minded themselves but also to prevent the birth of degen-

erate offspring. The School for the Feeble Minded has been enlarged during the last four years until its capacity will be 1,000 when buildings now under construction are completed, while 250 additional are being provided for in the annex at Templeton. This is practically its proper limit of size. The Board is accordingly of the opinion that "it now becomes necessary to establish a new institution (located in the western part of the state) which should be patterned after the general plans of the present school and receive the benefit of the practical experience acquired by its trustees and superintendent in its development, and that a moderate appropriation should be made this year for the purchase of 500 acres accordingly." Increase in provision for epileptic children is also urged by the Board, by extending the Hospital for Epileptics through the establishment of a department for children under fourteen — the present age limit.

The State Board of Charity has in the last four years shown an appreciation of its supervisory function in regard to local institutions. The present year has witnessed a new dawn in the organization of a corps of volunteer visitors for the city and town almshouses. A successful meeting of the visitors was held at the time of the State Conference of Charities in Boston last November. Whether the Board's care of its 5,000 minor wards is or is not efficient is a matter upon which it is difficult to form a judgment, inasmuch as this is the one piece of executive charity work done by the State of Massachusetts in which the work of the Board directly responsible is without supervision by any outside body.

MICHIGAN.

LUCIUS C. STORRS, SECRETARY BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

A Juvenile Court Law was enacted by the last Legislature (1905). It has, however, been declared unconstitutional by the supreme court of the state. This because of certain amendments which were made to the original bill, in the way of a compromise, to secure its passage. An effort will be made in the Legislature of 1907 to secure a Juvenile Court Law, which will stand the test of constitutionality.

A State Sanitarium for the care and treatment of persons having tuberculosis was provided for by the last Legislature (1905).

MINNESOTA.

A. W. GUTRIDGE, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF ST. PAUL, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session since last report.

New Developments.

Three or four new hospitals planned.

The Mounds Park Sanatorium for the treatment of all diseases not contagious nor infectious, especially chronic diseases, has been incorporated. The Sanatorium will be modeled on the plan of that at Battle Creek, Mich. It is described as being "a benevolent work." Its name is derived from its location on land near the Indian Mounds Park, St. Paul.

Remarks.

The statistics presented this year include those from every Home for children and adults, and every hospital in the state.

MISSOURI.

MISS MARY E. PERRY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session since last report.

New Developments.

For the first time since the creation of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, we have a Secretary (Mr. Frank Bowman) who devotes all of his time to the work of the Board. He is located in Jefferson City, and has his office in the Capitol Building.

During the early winter there has been a series of public conferences on problems pertaining to charitable and philanthropic work under the auspices of the "School of Philanthropy." These conferences began in February and will continue into April. Two addresses have been given a week by noted charity workers. Many of those interested in these problems in St. Louis have attended all the sessions, read papers and taken part in the discussions. Forty-three different charitable organizations were represented and ministers from all denominations were present. The Conference divided itself into three groups, and under efficient guides visited our city institutions. This has been such a successful experiment and such general interest has been shown that we hope for good results in legislation and in other ways.

Needs.

A reformatory for first offenders between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, with an indeterminate and parol sentence. A school in the penitentiary. State agents to look after the boys and girls when they are released from the State Industrial School for Girls and the Missouri Training School for Boys. An extension of the juvenile court and parol system throughout the state. A law prohibiting all children and insane persons being kept in jails and poor farms. A commission in lunacy.

Remarks.

The Jewish Hospital, which was built a few years ago, finds it is necessary to add two wings at a cost of $100,000. To relieve the crowding of the Jewish Charity Building, a kindergarten and day nursery have been added to it at a cost of $20,000. The work of the Jewish Educational Alliance has greatly increased, owing to immigration from Russia and Roumania, but the subscription list is also increasing, and at the beginning of the year twenty-five thousand dollars more had been subscribed than for the work last year.

The Childrens' Home Society of Missouri since moving into its new quarters is better prepared than formerly to carry on its efficient work. The new house has all the comforts of a real home, as well as accommodations for the officers and other workers. Ample grounds surround the buildings.

The new St. Louis Tuberculosis Hospital which will accommodate one hundred and twenty patients is located on one of the highest pieces of ground owned by the city. The latest scientific method of treating tuberculosis will be introduced here.

St. Louis is now asking that an ordinance authorizing the city to issue bonds to the extent of $12,000,000, be passed; for the construction and the purchase of sites for hospitals, $800,000; for the extension and purchase of site for the Insane Asylum, $1,000,000; for new jail buildings, civil, criminal, and other courts, police headquarters, and health department headquarters, $2,000.000.

NEBRASKA.

REV. A. W. CLARK, OMAHA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

There has been no session of the Legislature since the last report.

New Developments.

The Commissioners of Douglas County appropriated $5,000 for the maintenance of a Detention Home and for other expenses connected with the work of the Juvenile Court in Omaha. A building was secured and fitted up to accommodate thirty boys and girls and an average of twenty have been on hand during the past six months. An excellent and experienced woman was secured as Superintendent, and the results have been gratifying.

A home for aged people was opened during the year by Father Ruesing at West Point, Neb., who is a member of the Board of State Charities. The home is crowded to its full capacity and there are many applicants waiting admission.

The progress of the Charity Organization Society of Lincoln deserves mention. The citizens contributed $6,500, mostly in small amounts, with which has been constructed a building for headquarters with offices in the front of the first floor and a Wayfarer's Lodge in the rear. Both sexes are accommodated, there is room for twenty-five persons, which is adequate to the need. The men are given work at cutting wood, the women at sewing.

Needs.

First. A State Board of Charities not tied up under political control. The present State Board has not been able to accomplish any results worth mention during the past year.

This Board has always been under political control from the beginning, but for a while after its establishment its advisory secretaries were enthusiastic and regularly visited all the State Institutions, studying conditions and accomplished good results in new legislation, etc.

The last legislature refused any appropriations for traveling expenses and made it impossible to keep up the work as formerly done. The Board has now simply a name without power, and might as well be abolished, as it probably will be, by the next Legislature. Having been a member of the Board since it was constituted and having spent much time to help make it successful, the writer deeply deplores the present situation.

Second. An institution is needed for the care of epileptics so that they may be removed from the Hospitals for Insane and the Institution for Feeble Minded.

Third. Better provision for the aged poor, there being at least one thousand such reported in different sections of the state as needing better care than they now receive.

Fourth. An Institution for the adult Feeble-minded.

Fifth. A Hospital for the care of the tuberculous. Efforts were made, without success, to induce the last legislature to provide for this class, which is a large one in the state.

Remarks.

Nebraska is justly proud of her small number of criminals, the number being less than in other states of equal population. This is probably due to the character of the population, mostly American, and to the fact that the State has the smallest degree of illiteracy of any State. It follows that the prisoners' aid association has less to do than occurs elsewhere, yet that work is not neglected.

As an offset to the weakness of the State Board of Charities it must be remembered that the Institutions are under the control of the Board of Public Land and Buildings, which gives

much attention to their management. The present governor, Hon. John Mickey, has also given a great deal of attention to the management of the Institutions. Although in the past the management of all Institutions has been strictly political, Governor Mickey has insisted on keeping efficient superintendents in office, in spite of great political pressure upon him to make changes. In the selection of new superintendents, when changes occurred, he has been guided by the best advice and has disregarded politics. The consequence is that the Institutions are generally in a high state of efficiency.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

MRS. LILLIAN C. STREETER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session of the Legislature since last report.

New Developments.

The successful work of the Concord Charity Organization Society during the past year has been marked and its influence has been felt not only within the limits of Concord but throughout the state. Many requests have been received for information and data concerning the work of this society and several addresses have been delivered by the secretary in different cities with the result that a wide spread interest has been aroused and a desire to form like societies awakened.

A sum of twenty thousand dollars was given to the State of New Hampshire for charitable purposes by the Japanese and Russian governments as a slight token of high appreciation for the many marks of courtesy and consideration shown to the plenipotentiaries of those countries at the Peace Conference held at Portsmouth.

Great public interest was aroused by these gifts and, after much discussion relative to the disposition of the same, it was decided to make the twenty thousand dollars a permanent trust and to invest it in Japanese and Russian war bonds. The Governor invited the Secretary of State and the State Treasurer to act with him as trustees of the fund, and distribute the income thereof among suitable charities on the fifth day of September

of each year in recognition of the date of the signing of the treaty of Portsmouth.

Needs.

The needs of the State are the same as reported a year ago, i. e., Reform in the management of county jails and houses of correction, and the establishment of a State Reformatory or Workhouse; the establishment of separate juvenile courts and the enactment of probation laws; stringent legislation regarding wife and child desertion; an industrial School for Girls, and a separate building for epileptics at the State School for the Feeble-minded.

The State Prison and State Hospital for the Insane should be under the supervision of the State Board of Charities and Correction. At present they are supervised only by the Governor and Council.

There is no public system of child-saving. The dependent children of the State are under the direct care of the County Commissioners who have entire charge of placing them out. The State Board of Charities simply has the power of visiting them when placed and making recommendations.

Remarks.

Among the useful institutions of the State deserving mention is the Mercy Home for friendless, abused or neglected girls, conducted by the W. C. T. U. at Manchester. It has room for 21 girls. The city of Manchester gives a small subsidy and there are a few subscriptions, but the chief support is the labor of its inmates at laundry work.

NEW JERSEY.

MISS MINA C. GINGER, NEWARK, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation in 1906.

A bill for a Woman's Reformatory was passed but without an appropriation.

Bill No. 331 places all Hospitals for the Insane under the jurisdiction of the State Commissioner of Charities and Correction.

An Act to provide female attendants for escorting female patients to Hospitals for the Insane.

Law to keep minors from attending theatres.

Bill No. 347 permits support of the poor outside of the County Poorhouse.

Appropriations were granted as follows: $300,000 for a new cell wing at the Rahway Reformatory; $24,000 for repairs at the Morris Plains Hospital for the Insane; $50,000 for a new wing at the Soldiers' Home at Vineland, and $35,000 for a new building at the State Home for Boys.

House Bill No. 241 gives power to truant officers to enter all places where gainful occupations are carried on to ascertain whether children under fourteen are being employed. Employers found evading the compulsory education law are held equally responsible with the parent.

The Tenement House Department has asked for at least ten new inspectors but the Legislature has allowed them an appropriation which will cover the salaries of five only. The amount of building is nearly double what it was last year, therefore it requires nearly all the staff to keep in touch with the new work and there are only three men detailed to old buildings.

Several measures regarding child labor, most of which are urgently needed, were defeated.

New Developments.

1. The organization of a State Tuberculosis Association for the prevention and study of tuberculosis.

2. A Child Labor Committee was formed with the aid of the National Child Labor Committee, consisting of members of the Children's Protective Alliance and some prominent men outside of the Alliance.

3. The Consumers' League investigated the character of home work in the northern part of the state.

4. In the City of Newark there were organized

   1. A joint committee for placing out mothers with children.

   2. A joint committee on Children's Institutions with one agent who has power to adjust all applications, to investigate and to collect board for inmates of institutions where a fixed charge has been made.

3. A joint Charity Endorsement Committee consisting of representatives of the Board of Trade and Bureau of Associated Charieties for the purpose of bringing about more business-like methods in the support of charitable institutions and the elimination of fraudulent charities.

A significant piece of work has just been done in Hudson County — an investigation of the resources of the relatives of inmates of the Hudson Co. Almshouse and Hudson Co. Hospital for the Insane with a view to compelling those responsible (and able) to contribute to their support.

One week's work resulted in guarantees of $2,600 from relatives toward maintenance.

Needs.

1. A reformatory for women.
2. A State employment bureau and removal agency with offices in large cities.
3. Abolition of child labor at night.
4. State truant department.
5. Provision for the Criminal Insane.
6. Appropriation for paying for supervision and board in private homes for inmates of juvenile reformatories who do not need institution care. This would relieve the present overcrowding.
7. Custodial asylum for the feeble-minded.

Needs of Institutions, Etc.

The following are generally recognized:

At the State Reformatory more room for inmates and buildings for trade schools.

At the State Home for Boys. Trained school teachers, better domestic accommodations, more opportunity for individual work.

At the State Home for Girls. An industrial building, a gymnasium and an infirmary.

At the State Prison. A central power house, the completion of the new cell house (at present there are three and four prisoners in one cell).

For the Feeble Minded. More accommodations and the

enforcement of the law forbidding the marriage of any former inmate of an institution for feeble-minded or epileptic, without a medical certificate of fitness.

For the Commissioner of Charities, authority to transfer misplaced inmates from one institution to another.

Remarks.

There is a steadily growing interest throughout the State in Charities and Correction. The N. J. State Conference was evidence of this — no previous conference was so well attended as that of 1906.

The Department of Charities and Correction has published its first annual report. Dr. George B. Wight, the Commissioner shows the general economic value of this department to the State. He has made careful inspections of State and County Hospitals and will have a complete register of all the inmates in his office at Trenton. There are six county asylums. Two counties care for a number of their insane in State hospitals and the remainder are cared for in almshouses. The freeholders of one county where the almshouse is used for the insane, have promised to provide a hospital. The State pays $104 per year for each patient in the county hospitals.

The State Tenement House Commission has 45,000 tenements under its supervision. So many new buildings are being erected that only three of the staff of inspectors find time to look after the old buildings. In spite of this 3,500 old houses were thoroughly cleaned up last year. Letters emphasizing the power of the Attorney General, in lieu of the Inspectors' visits, have brought many delinquent landlords to terms.

The State Board of Children's Guardians has accomplished much good. It was learned through correspondence with stewards of almshouses that there were not more than eight children in these institutions and in each instance it was stated that the child had since been removed by the Board. Good homes have been provided for many children — on November 1, 1905 there were 336 wards in boarding homes and 266 in free homes — total in their care during the year 766.

As a result of the State Conference meeting in Newark and in response to Judge Alfred Skinner's plea for the prisoners in the Essex Co. Penitentiary — the Grand Jury gave this institu-

tion its special attention and in its presentment emphasized the need of reform.

The Essex County Committee of the State Charities Aid waited upon the Board of Freeholders on April 13, and protested against the present system in the Penitentiary, urging the following improvements: — lighted cells, grading of convicts, the abolishment of stripes, some sort of instruction and the installation of some industries.

The Social Settlements of the State are important civic and educational factors, their work cannot be too highly commended.

NEW YORK.

WM. BRADFORD BUCK, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The Insane.

The appropriations for the care of the insane were considerably smaller than last year. Notwithstanding the fact that 800 additional patients will require maintenance the State Commission in Lunacy voluntarily agreed that no increase was needed above the maintenance appropriation of last year. The appropriations for extraordinary improvements and new buildings were considerably lower, but sufficient funds were granted to prevent deterioration of plants and to enable the Commission to carry forward long contemplated reforms.

An important provision of the legislature permits the Commission to expend $320,000 for the construction, on the grounds of existing State hospitals, of four small hospital buildings for the special care of the acute, and probably curable, insane. The success attending the operation of this type of buildings with their complete system of baths, massage, electric therapeutics, skilled nursing and specialized medical care in such of the State hospitals as are at this time equipped, leads the Commission to hope for a distinct increase in the percentage of patients cured.

The Commission supported a bill which is now before the Governor, permitting the commitment of inebriates for the space of six months and their confinement in the St. Vincent's Retreat for the insane located at Harrison.

A new law provides that any religious corporation may erect a building on the grounds of any State hospital for the holding of religious services to be used exclusively for the benefit of the inmates and employes of such State hospital.

Another law provides that a committtee appointed for an incompetent person in a State hospital must file a duplicate of his inventory account and affidavit with the superintendent or officer having special jurisdiction over the State hospital.

Correctional and Reformatory.

A bill has been signed by the Governor, appropriating seventy-five thousand ($75,000) dollars for securing a site and the preparations of plans for a new State Prison within reasonable distance of New York City, to take the place of Sing Sing Prison whose buildings and location have repeatedly been shown to be both unsuitable and unsanitary. While the appropriation is less than had been hoped it doubtless marks the beginning of the end of Sing Sing Prison.

BOSTON MEDICAL LIBRARY AUG 29 1910

Another bill creates a State Board of Managers for Reformatories. The effect of this is to center the management of the State Reformatory at Elmira, which has been under the direction of a Board of Managers and the reformatory at Napanoch, which has been managed hitherto by the State Superintendent of Prisons, in an unpaid Board. The present Board of the Elmira Reformatory constitute the new State Board of Managers for Reformatories. A companion bill provides that sentences to these reformatories shall be for a period of not less than five years, reduceable for good behavior. The effect of this bill will be to do away with the short term commitments which have had a bad effect upon the discipline of the reformatory.

Another bill provides that the State Board of Managers for Reformatories may meet either at Elmira or Napanoch once a month and shall report monthly to the Governor, the Fiscal Supervisor and the State Commission of Prisons.

Still another bill provides that where a mother with a child less than two years old is committed to a jail or penitentiary in the State the child may be received and cared for at the jail or penitentiary.

New Developments.

An educational campaign on Relief and Control of Tuberculosis is being conducted with good prospects of success. It has included lectures in the public schools, the circulation of pamphlets, public meetings and tuberculosis exhibitions. The most noteworthy of such expositions was held in the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, under the direction of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, and was attended by more than 17,000 people. Similar exhibitions have been held in some of the settlements of New York City, where the attendance ranged from 3,500 to 35,000 persons.

In addition to a number of hospitals and dispensaries already in operation two municipal sanatoria for tuberculosis patients have been projected by New York City at an estimated expense of more than $3,000,000. One will be under the control of the Department of Public Charities, the other under the Department of Health.

A private sanatorium, with 100 beds is to be built at Medford, L. I. A pavilion for tuberculosis patients in connection with the Monroe County Hospital at Rochester has been opened during the year.

The New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children has established a training school for humane society workers to give instruction in the practice of child saving as carried on by this society.

Lectures upon subjects relating to Charities and Correction arranged by the Committee on Education of the State Board of Charities are being given in a number of the Colleges and Universities of the State.

Since the last Conference a Woman's Federation of Relief Activities has been organized at Elmira. A society for the relief of the poor in their homes has been organized at Ithaca, while the Associated Charities of Jamestown has been reorganized and strengthened.

Application has been made to the State Board of Charities for approval of the certificate of incorporation of the New York State Association for Protecting the Interests of the Blind. Its objects are "the furtherance of the interests of the blind in the State of New York by their physical and mental betterment, by

the development of methods and plans for their education and instruction, and by opening new trades and other occupations for their employment." The first work of the Association will be to secure a registration of all blind persons in the State, a work begun by a State Commission appointed some years ago, but never completed. Later experiments in establishing industrial centers for the blind may be tried and arrangements made to dispose of the output. The Association will work in harmony with the existing schools and homes for the Blind.

With the funds appropriated in 1905 the Commission has, in connection with the State Charities Aid Association of New York City, made considerable progress toward the selection of a site and the commencement of construction upon the reception hospital for the insane to be located in that city and to accommodate two hundred patients of the acute class. The functions of this hospital will approximate closely those of Pavilion F at the Albany Hospital and the psychopathic wards of Bellevue and King's County Hospitals in New York City. It will not give prolonged treatment to all patients, but so soon as the authorities of the institution determine that a given case is suitable for a State hospital transfer will forthwith be made. The most approved equipment for examination and treatment will be furnished.

Increased provision has been made for after care of convalescent patients discharged from the hospitals of New York City in the opening of St. Elizabeth's Home for Convalescents at Spring Valley and of the Solomon and Betty Loeb Memorial Home at East View, Westchester county.

The Mayor has appointed a Commission of representative officials and private citizens to study the hospital situation in New York City and suggest measures for improving existing conditions. The present system is disjointed and confused, three different city departments having charge of the municipal hospitals, while the greater number of hospitals in the city are under private management and not directly responsible to the municipality. Ambulance districts are assigned by the Police Department and calls for ambulances are made through the office of that Department. The evil of the transfer of patients who are critically ill or moribund, from private to public hospitals is also prominent.

The following new general hospitals have been organized during the year:

Washington Heights Hospital; Italian Hospital; Jewish Hospital for Deformities and Joint Diseases; Our Lady of Grace Hospital; St. Joseph's Hospital (Far Rockaway), all in New York City. Eastern L. I. Hospital, Greenpoint, L. I.; King's Daughters' Hospital, Lestershire.

New buildings have been erected by St. Vincent's Hospital; St. Francis Hospital, Bronx; Harlem Hospital and Fordham Hospital in New York City; Schenectady Hospital Association, Schenectady; St. Joachim's Hospital, Watertown; St. Luke's Hospital, Utica; and Mary Immaculate Hospital, Jamaica.

New Institutions for children located in the county on large tracts of land and built on the cottage plan to replace congregate Institutions in the city have been opened or projected. Among these the most important are the State Industrial School, Rochester, the New York Juvenile Asylum, the New York Colored Orphan Asylum, the Rochester Orphan Asylum, and the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society.

The Mission of the Immaculate Virgin, already on a country site, will replace its congregate buildings with a group of cottages, at Mount Loretto, Staten Island.

The work of placing out and boarding out dependent children is being rapidly extended, especially by the Catholic Home Bureau, the New York Infant Asylum, the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society and other agencies.

Several instances of the recognition of the value of experience and training for the administration of public departments have recently been noted. Among these may be mentioned the appointments of Mr. P. Tecumseh Sherman as Labor Commissioner of New York State; Mr. Edmund J. Butler as Tenement House Commissioner, and of Mr. Robert W. Hebberd as Commissioner of Public Charities in New York City.

The State Civil Service Commission has extended its rules to the counties of Albany, Monroe, Onondaga and Westchester, thus including the staff of almshouses and related institutions in the classified service. Unfortunately the deputy superintendents of the poor and the keepers and matrons of almshouses were

placed in the exempt class. It is hoped these rules may be further extended.

The State Prison Improvement Commission has submitted its report, showing that Sing Sing and Auburn Prisons are of unsuitable construction; that they breed tuberculosis, prison fever and like diseases; that they are seriously overcrowded and highly unsanitary; and that sentence thereto means subjection to far worse conditions than confinement at hard labor. The construction of new buildings on different sites is recommended. It is also recommended that the Eastern New York Reformatory at Napanoch, now to all intents and purposes a prison, be placed under the control of the managers of the Elmira Reformatory and developed as a reformatory in accordance with its original design. Bills to give effect to these recommendations have been introduced and considered at the present session of the Legislature with the result stated in another part of this report.

The State Commission of Prisons reports a striking decrease in the number of commitments to prisons and jails during 1905, there being about 28 per cent. fewer than during 1896.

The Legislature of 1905 made provision for the appointment by the Governor of a special commission to inquire into the present extent and methods of probation in this state. This Commission, Homer Folks, Chairman, has submitted a comprehensive report to the Legislature. It recommends the appointment by the mayor of commissions to manage the work of probation in cities of the first and second class, such commissions to appoint both salaried and unsalaried probation officers, while in counties not containing cities of the first or second class, and in parts of counties outside such cities, the county judge shall appoint. Further, that all persons released under suspended sentence be placed under the supervision of a probation officer with term of three months except in case of felonies, where the term shall be for one year; also that the general supervision of probation work in the state rest with the State Board of Charities. A minority of the commission dissents from the last recommendation. Appropriate legislation to carry out the above recommendations has been introduced.

At a conference of representatives of the State Commission in Lunacy, the State Charities Aid Association and the hospital superintendents, held in Albany, January 30, 1906, following an

inquiry made by the State Charities Aid Association into the present condition and circumstances of 90 patients discharged from the Manhattan State Hospital, that Association was requested to organize a system of after-care for such patients — the unit of the system to be a committee of volunteers in each State hospital district. One or more paid agents to aid such committees and correlate their work will also be required. The Association has appointed a committee on after-care of which Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, whose manifold labors for the insane in this State are well known, is chairman, and Miss Mary Vida Clark Secretary.

In the deaths of Fathers Kinkead and Dougherty, the heads of St. Joseph's Home and the Mission of the Immaculate Virgin, respectively, and of Mrs. Charles Russell Lowell, a former member of the State Board of Charities, the State has met with unusual loss. Though of wholly different personalities they had much in common,— great interest in works of charity, real friendship for the poor, remarkable executive ability, unusual capacity for hard work, and catholicity of spirit, all of which made them most effective in the service of their city and state. It would be difficult to name three people whom the charities in this State could so ill spare.

Needs.

The more important needs of the State at the present time may be summarized as follows:

1. A reformatory for male misdemeanants of the ages of sixteen to thirty, to be located in the central part of the State, and to provide suitable reformatory training and discipline.

2. The enlargement of the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble Minded Women at Newark; of Craig Colony for Epileptics; of the State Training School for Girls at Hudson and of the Reformatories for Women at Bedford and Albion, all of which are now overcrowded; and of the State Hospital for Incipient Tuberculosis at Raybrook, which is wholly inadequate in size to the demands made upon it. The speedy selection of a site and the construction of buildings for the New York State Training School for Boys so as to permit the removal of inmates from the House of Refuge at Randall's Island is a most urgent need.

3. The adoption of a general plan for the logical and systematic development of the State's system of charities and of

each institution in the system, and for the laying out of its grounds and location of buildings thereon so as to secure the most advantageous use of these institutions and their property.

4. Some provision for the supervision and strengthening of the educational work carried on in the charitable institutions of the State, both public and private, particularly in the homes for children, the inmates of which numbered more than 30,000 on October 1st, 1905. A recent inquiry by the State Board of Charities shows these schools to be below the standard of the public schools of the State in several important particulars.

There should also be greater care in the admission and retention in institutions of children received from New York City. Owing to the lack of funds to permit the employment of a sufficient staff of examiners in the Department of Public Charities the rules of the State Board of Charities in regard to this matter are not fully complied with.

5. Further provision for the needs of the blind in this State, particularly the arrangement of useful occupations for adults so that they may become in whole or in part self-supporting.

6. A modification of the system of charities and correction in the state with a view to separating so far as possible the functions of supervision from those of administration and to consolidating the different supervisory departments of the State government so as to secure greater economy and efficiency. A first step in this direction is suggested by the charges recently made against the Fiscal Supervisor of State Charities for violation of the Civil Service Law. This office, which was created for personal and political reasons and not to meet a real need has been a constant source of friction. It is out of harmony with the other supervisory departments having to do with the charities of the state and in the interests of co-operation and economy should be dicontinued as a separate department. Its necessary work which was satisfactorily performed by a bureau in the Comptroller's office before this new department was established would be equally well administered by a similar bureau in the office of the Comptroller, or of the State Board of Charities, at a considerable saving to the State.

NORTH CAROLINA.

MISS DAISY DENSON, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

There has been no session of the Legislature since last report.

New Developments.

The Legislature of 1905 gave the Governor power to visit and investigate all institutions as Chairman of the Board of Internal Improvement. All expenses paid by the State.

Governor Glenn has been brought closer to the unfortunates in the institutions than any other governor. He will make strong recommendations in his message to the Legislature for increased accommodations for the insane. A conditional pardon law was passed in 1905 and this is being used by the Governor especially in the case of children and youthful offenders, when good homes and surroundings are assured for them.

A hospital for the sick and injured has been erected at Greensboro by the Sisters of Charity. The cost was $125,000, it has every convenience and will be the best in this section of the country.

The Christian Church has established an orphanage at Elon College. More interest is taken in the cure of alcoholics and drug habitues. The Crowell Sanatorium Co., Charlotte, has been incorporated and will eventually be greatly enlarged. There are other like institutions in the state. All such institutions established since 1899 must be licensed and inspected by the Board of Public Charities.

The Associated Charities of Raleigh, while not three years old has grown remarkably and will doubtless influence the other towns in the state to more systematic giving and to look to the upbuilding of character as the desired end.

Needs.

The pressing need in our state is greater accommodation for the insane.

A Reform School and a Home for the Feeble-minded are

next in urgency; also classification of prisoners in the penal institutions with better reformative measures.

NORTH DAKOTA.

FRANK D. HALL, SUPERINTENDENT NORTH DAKOTA CHILDREN'S HOME SOCIETY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Many improvements have been made during the year in the State institutions, among them a new hospital at the penitentiary, also an addition to the binder twine plant, increasing its capacity 20 per cent.; various improvements at the Reform School; at the Hospital for Insane, a new hospital building for sick and helpless patients, well equipped, also a new ward building; 120 acres of land were added to the plant of the School for the Deaf and some improved buildings also.

The Children's Home Society is doing very good work. About half its cost comes from donations, the remainder from county poor funds or payments from the children's parents.

Legislation.

No new legislation by last General Assembly that materially affects Charities and Corrections, except to appropriate $35,000 for the erection of a Blind Asylum at Bathgate, N. D.; $1,500 to finish upper portion of main dormitory of Reform School, and $80,000 for additional buildings at Insane Asylum.

A law was passed making the desertion of one's family a felony rather than a misdemeanor.

Needs.

A law should be enacted by next Legeislature enabling deserted wives to assign dependent children for adoption purposes, without written consent of husband.

OHIO.

H. H. SHIRER, SECRETARY BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

An act was passed creating a commission to purchase a site of not less than fifty acres for the establishment of an institu-

tion for the care, treatment and education of crippled and deformed children. This will meet a long-felt need. A commission appointed in 1902 reported that there were at least 3,000 crippled and deformed children in Ohio who could be helped physically, or intellectually, or both, by the special treatment and training in such an institution. An appropriation of $50,000 was made.

Two years ago a commission was appointed to secure an option on a tract of land suitable for the location of a hospital for insane. They selected a tract of 628 acres. Sufficient appropriation has been made for the purchase of this land and an act was passed providing for the erection thereon of a hospital for insane criminals and other dangerous insane. The act provides for a commission to prepare plans for buildings and specifies the classes of insane to be admitted and the manner of commitment. Very little can be done before the next session of the General Assembly except to purchase land and to prepare plans.

Another commission, was authorized to investigate the needs of our state penitentiary, to secure options on land for a rural site and to prepare estimates on cost of construction of a new prison. Those acquainted with the Ohio Penitentiary are agreed as to the necessity for a substitute for the old institution.

After many years of agitation contract convict labor is now legislated against. The act provides that the system shall cease with the expiration of present contracts. This will be very gradual as the present contracts extend from one to five years. The original bill provided an elaborate scheme for the use of convicts upon the preparation of road-making material and machinery, and the establishment of county quarries for the employment of state and local convicts. As the bill finally passed it provides for the gradual abolishment of contract labor, and the employment of the prisoners in quarries owned and managed by the state and in the manufacture of articles to be used by the state and the political divisions thereof. The act is not complete. At subsequent sessions it will be necessary to amend this act to make it reasonable and effective.

Two years ago the General Assembly provided for a commission to purchase a site for a State Sanatorium for the treatment of incipient pulmonary tuberculosis. At the recent session

the sum of $175,000 was appropriated for construction of buildings. In about two years this institution will be ready for admission of patients.

The juvenile court laws, which apply to counties in which Cleveland, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dayton and Toledo are located, have been amended in several particulars: 1. The age limit is raised from 16 to 17 years. 2. Juvenile delinquency has been given a larger definition. 3. Any parent or person responsible for juvenile delinquency or dependency, or encouraging or contributing to such condition shall be amenable to the juvenile court. 4. Such person may be punished by a fine not exceeding $1,000, or by imprisonment not more than one year, or both; provided that he may be released on probation before execution of sentence.

An effort was made to secure the passage of a bill to provide a system of probation for adults found guilty of felonies for first time. The bill was introduced too late in the session to secure favorable action. Public sentiment for such a law is increasing, and it will doubtless be secured in a few years.

Remarks.

There seems to be a growing interest in organized charities. Influential citizens of a number of cities are becoming anxious and are planning to secure more effectual co-operation between public officials and private agencies. The officials are slow to accept such overtures, often for mere selfish reasons. In several cities negotiations are now pending for such consolidation of activities and the outlook is favorable for concerted action in the future.

OREGON.

W. R. WALPOLE, SECRETARY CITY BOARD OF CHARITIES, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

There has been no meeting of the Legislature since the last report.

New Developments.

Since the last report, the Juvenile Court and a Detention Home for its wards have been established in Portland for Multnomah County.

A day nursery — the first in the state — was recently opened by the Portland Flower Mission.

The Traveller's Aid Association, mentioned in the last report, has been discontinued, and a similar department opened by the Young Woman's Christian Association in connection with its employment bureau.

An ordinance was recently passed by the city council of Portland providing for a free employment bureau, to be maintained by the city.

There is also a well organized movement in Portland in favor of public playgrounds — the direct outgrowth of the 1905 Conference.

The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society has established local boards in each county in the state, to work in connection with that organization, to investigate all applications for placing out its wards — to be responsible for the proper conduct of children returned to their homes in communities where the Juvenile Court law does not apply, and to report to the parent organization all cases needing its care.

NEEDS.

1. A State Board of Charities.
2. A law providing penalty for wife desertion.
3. Establishment of Houses of Correction.
4. Institution for care of delinquent girls.
5. Cottages for care of Insane.
6. State registration of nurses and midwives.

PENNSYLVANIA.

CARL KELSEY, PH. D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

It is difficult to summarize the situation in Pennsylvania in regard to matters of special interest to the members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Relative to the public institutions of the state, probably the most important fact at the present time is the continued, rapid increase of the system of subsidizing private institutions. Miss Mary E. Richmond has given an excellent description of this matter in an article in "Charities." The situation is fast becoming intolerable, and in

some way must soon be changed, as the average philanthropy of Pennsylvania seems to think that the state should make substantial contributions to its income without any supervision or control on the part of the state. Moreover, the burden put upon the Governor by the log-rolling method of the Legislature, many bills being passed in the hope that they will be vetoed, is too much for the strength and intelligence of any man. For some reason, Pennsylvania does not seem to have any influential group of citizens, public or private, who are planning and forwarding the development of the philanthropic activities of the state. Several institutions are greatly needed in the state at the present time, one of which, a State Hospital for the Criminal Insane, has just been provided for as is indicated in another section of this report. There is still a crying need for an institution for the epileptics, who are at the present time scattered in various institutions, (there being 221 in the School for Feeble-Minded at Elwyn alone), or allowed at large. There is likewise need for further provision for the feeble-minded, both of the existing institutions being overcrowded, and many who should have institutional care are forced to go without it. It is deeply to be regretted that the Legislature has not yet seen fit to remedy the deplorable situation as regards the employment of convicts in the penitentiaries, the present law, that not more than ten per cent. of the inmates shall be employed in any industries existent in the state, practically meaning that ninety per cent. of the inmates are idle, save for the relatively small tasks of the daily care of the institution.

There is a most interesting and important canvass of the state now taking place under the auspices of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, of which Mr. Edward E. Allen, the Superintendent, has made mention in "Charities" for February 3, 1906. There is likewise need for a State Conference of Charities which shall be broader and more inclusive than the excellent Conference of the Overseers of the Poor. In the field of private charity, probably the most notable incident of recent years is the opening of the Widener Memorial Home for Crippled Children, located just north of the city of Philadelphia, most splendidly constructed, and largely endowed.

Within the last year, the evident need for closer co-operation on the part of those who engage in religious, social and philanthropic work in the city of Philadelphia, has led to the es-

tablishment of The Social Workers' Club in that city, while the continued demand for opportunities for training on the part of those who expect to enter public service, has induced the University of Pennsylvania to establish a Preliminary Course, running for six weeks this spring.

Among the other effects of the political upheaval in Philadelphia, has been the determined effort to increase the efficiency of the Department of Public Health and Charities, and to greatly improve the care of the poor of the state. The present institution at Blockley, just west of the Schuylkill river, and adjoining the University of Pennsylvania, is very unsatisfactory. The buildings are, many of them, old and ill-adapted to their present use, while the institution is likewise greatly overcrowded. It is hoped that in the relatively near future some division may be made which will make possible a better classification, for Blockley is at present a compound of three institutions — a large general hospital, an insane asylum, and an almshouse.

New Legislation.

At the 1905 Session of the Legislature of the State of Pennsylvania some very important laws were enacted which received the Governor's approval. Among these may be mentioned:

1. An Act to Prevent the Buying and Selling of Infant Children, aimed directly at the practices of certain "Baby Farms" and other institutions dealing with infant children, which provided for a fine of one thousand dollars for any person convicted of trafficking in human flesh.

2. Although Vital Statistics have been kept in some of the cities of Pennsylvania, there has never been state registration. A most important act was passed, authorizing the State Board of Health and Vital Statistics to appoint at once a Bureau of Vital Statistics to district the state, and to arrange at once for the complete registration of all births and deaths.

3. There were two very important acts relative to Child Labor.

The first act regulated the employment of minor children in or about any anthracite coal mine, or colliery, prohibiting the employment of any children under 16 years of age inside of a coal mine, and the employment of any child under 14 years of age in or about any colliery, or outside workings thereof. It provides

further that no minor should be employed until an employment certificate, properly issued, should be secured, and making the failure of any employer to produce this certificate upon demand of proper persons to be prima facie evidence of illegal employment. The certificate is subject to the inspection of any School Superintendent, any truant or attendance officer of any school district, or any mine inspector. The certificate further shall show that the minor can read and write legibly simple sentences in the English language, and has complied with the educational laws of the Commonwealth.

The second act regulates the employment in all kinds of industrial establishments of women and children, decreeing that no child under 14 years of age shall be employed in any establishment, that no minor under 16, and no female shall be employed for more than 60 hours in one week, nor more than 12 hours a day. No minor under 16 shall be employed in any establishment between the hours of 9 P. M. and 6 A. M., except under certain conditions. These conditions, however, practically make it possible for any industries working regularly at night to employ boys between the age of 14-16. These two laws should result in far better control of the problems of Child Labor in the state. There is evidence, however, to show that interested persons have found ways to avoid or break these laws with impunity, owing to the present inactivity of the factory inspectors practically no one is being brought to time.

Another important law was the establishment of a Commission to secure ground and to build a State Hospital for the Criminal Insane. Ten thousand dollars was appropriated for a site, and one hundred and fifty thousand dollars for the beginning of the buildings.

Another marked development has been the establishment of a Department of State Police, providing for the appointment of the Superintendent, officers, and officials who are to be located throughout the state at large, and who are to co-operate with the local officials in the prevention of crime and in the execution of the laws of the Commonwealth.

Vetoes.

Among the more important Acts vetoed by the Governor for various reasons, were the following:

A Bill providing that when a child is proven to be a delinquent child, the parents or custodians, if it can be shown that they in any way encouraged or contributed toward the delinquency of the child, shall be punishable by a fine of one hundred dollars, or imprisonment in the county jail for one month, or both. This the Governor vetoed on the ground that the phrasing of the definition of what constituted encouragement, etc., on the part of parents or custodians was entirely too vague.

An Act designed to prevent "Baby Farming" by providing that any person who shall in cities of the first class, take into his custody for hire or reward, a child or children under the age of three years, without having first obtained a license in writing from the Department of Public Health and Charities, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment for a year. The Governor recognized the worthy purpose of the Bill, but vetoed it on the ground that it was carelessly drawn and would apply to many other conditions than those existing in "Baby Farms."

After a careful investigation of the methods of Employment Agencies in the City of Philadelphia, conducted by the Association for Household Research, a bill was drawn by one of the most eminent constitutional lawyers of the state, designed to license and regulate the keeping of employment agencies in cities of the first and second class, where fees are charged for procuring help or employment. The provisions of the bill were such as had been found feasible and satisfactory elsewhere. The Governor, however, vetoed the bill, seemingly, largely for technical reasons and because of his own doubt as to whether such conditions really existed, as the sponsors of the bill stated, and therefore the bill would be an unwise and unfair restriction of reputable business agencies. "It is to be regretted that this bill which has for its object the very worthy purpose of protecting those who are brought into relation with employment agencies should fail; but it has been prepared with such want of care, and displays so much crudity of thought that it could not, with safety, be permitted to become a law." The sentence just quoted is the beginning of the Governor's veto. The Governor's objections to the technical language of the bill may be well taken, but it is deeply to be regretted that an Act so much needed should have been vetoed.

RHODE ISLAND.

JAMES H. EASTMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF STATE FARM, ETC., HOWARD, RHODE ISLAND, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY. *

The management of the Sockanosset School for Boys, Oaklawn School for Girls, State Workhouse and House of Correction, State Almshouse, State Hospital for the Insane, State Prison, and Providence County Jail, is vested in the Board of State Charities and Corrections. These institutions are all on one diversified tract of land comprising about 800 acres, from one-half mile to a mile apart. This is a unique arrangement which could only be carried out in a small state, and proves to be of the greatest possible advantage to economic, administrative and humanitarian methods.

The only other institutions of an eleemosynary character established and supported wholly by the Commonwealth are the State School for the Deaf, the State Home and School for Dependent and Neglected children, both these located in Providence, R. I., under separate mixed boards of management, and the State Sanatorium for Consumptives at Wallum Pond, Rhode Island, with its Board of Trustees.

The Board of State Charities consists of nine members, three from the City of Providence, one from each of the Counties, and one from the State at large. They are each appointed for a term of six years by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The Board appoints a Secretary, the Superintendents and the Warden, who severally hold office during their pleasure. They also appoint the Deputy Superintendents and Deputy Warden upon the nomination of the Superintendents and Warden as the case may be.

The Superintendent and Warden appoint all the assistants to the Deputies and such other persons employed as the Board shall deem necessary, and shall discharge the same at their pleasure. The Board also appoints an Agent of State Charities and Corrections under like considerations. The Board shall fix the compensation for all these. No members of the Board shall receive any compensation for his services, but every member shall be paid

* The unique methods of R. I. have previously been reported to the Conference but not for several years, so that recent members may not be aware of the plan. — EDITOR.

out of the State Treasury his necessary traveling expenses, and shall be exempt from military and jury duty.

They are a Board of Managers of State Institutions, and a Board of State Charities combined. They may parole any inmate of the Sockanosset and Oaklawn Schools, and the State Workhouse and House of Correction, and may terminate and order such paroled person back into custody again. The Board also have power to transfer from one institution to another those inmates deemed incorrigible as they may consider for the best interests of the State.

A board of female visitors is appointed annually by the Governor composed of seven competent women to act as an advisory Board to the Penal and Correctional Institutions and the State Reform School where women are confined. The law directs they shall visit at least once in three months, and shall have the same power to visit and inspect such places of confinement, and to examine into the government and discipline of the same so far as relates to the female inmates thereof, as is exercised by the Board of State Charities and Corrections, and shall make such suggestions and give such counsel to said Board as shall be deemed expedient and proper.

The Prisoners' Aid Society is a private charity receiving State aid, which helps in looking after women discharged from the House of Correction and also in keeping them from being sentenced there.

They have a home (The Sophia Little Home), and an endowment for its support; this with State aid ($1,000.00 annually) puts them in position to do excellent work. But the volume of work done ought to be larger. The equipment of the Home and the needs of this populous community would seem to warrant the belief. The Managers' report for 1905, "we have sheltered thirty-five girls and three infants, an increase in number from last year." There are twenty-six "neatly furnished" rooms in the Home and the daily average number of inmates has been less than five.

Feeble-Minded: At this writing a hearing before a joint Commission of the Legislature appointed to consider the advisability of establishing a School for the Feeble-Minded is now going on. Our principal educators, professional men, and prominent charity workers are strenuous advocates for this measure. Certainly the need grows more and more pressing. No people are more gen-

erous to the unfortunate than the people of Rhode Island; and it seems paradoxical that "following the experiments worked out in the continental cities and in England, the special classes for backward children opened first in Providence, R. I.,'" (*Mental Defectives*, Barr, page 71.) that at this late day we should be the only * one of all the New England States, without such a home and following in the wake of other States of the Union.

Probation: The average numbers in the following State Institutions seem not to have materially increased during the past ten years, a fact which is no doubt attributable to the intelligent work of the Probation Officers appointed by the Board of State Charities and Corrections.

The average number in Sockanosset School, 1905, was 345; for the decade, 337.

The average number in Oaklawn School, 1905, was 44; for the decade, 50.

The average number in House of Correction, 1905, was 269; for the decade, 263.

The average number in State Prison, 1905, was 161; for the decade, 184.

The average number in all jails of the State, 1905, was 282; for the decade, 251.

The population of the State has increased from 384,758 in the year 1895 to 480,082 in 1905, or almost 25 per cent.

Legislation.

The Legislature now in session has appropriated $2,500.00 for the instruction of adult blind residents at their homes. The number of State beneficiaries reported by the State Board of Education at the Perkins Institute for the Blind is now twenty-nine. They think no better provision for the education of the Blind could be made.

A bill is now pending in the Legislature which has for its object the amelioration of the condition of male ex-prisoners and probationers which provides as follows: "The Board of State Charities and Corrections are hereby authorized and empowered to expend annually for the further assistance of male ex-prisoners and probationers a sum not exceeding $3,000.00. It may also

* The Reporter is in error in saying that R. I. is the only N. E. State not having an Institution for the Feeble-Minded. — Editor.

employ at a cost not exceeding $1,000.00 additional persons to act as its agents in rendering such service. Said agents shall endeavor to furnish for their own use and that of the Board all necessary and obtainable facts and information regarding those who are, who have been, and also regarding those who from time to time may be, inmates of the State Institutions in Cranston, and, in rendering such service the agents may require of the police and other authorities that such facts and information as may be in their possession and available shall be furnished by them, when so doing will not be detrimental to the public interests.

"The agents of the Board shall also counsel and advise male ex-prisoners and probationers who may need and seek their aid, when necessary, and under the direction of the Board furnish them with food and lodging, working tools, clothing, assist in obtaining employment and provide conveyance to their homes or where they may have found employment. Efforts shall be made by the Board and its agents to procure them employment through personal interviews, and by correspondence, with persons engaged in charitable, mechanical, agricultural and other proper pursuits."

A bill for an act for the establishment and maintenance of the Rhode Island School for the Feeble Minded is now pending.

TENNESSEE.

There was no State Corresponding Secretary from Tennessee this year, but a report is presented, showing that there is a vigorous and active United Charities in the city of Memphis, which, during the year assisted something like 14,000 families, representing about 20,000 persons. A good deal of help was given in the way of transportation, also in medical assistance and clothing.

TEXAS.

REV. R. C. BUCKNER, GENERAL MANAGER BUCKNER ORPHANS' HOME, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

New Developments.

A new Presbyterian Orphans' Home has been established.

Buckner Orphans' Home has added a department consisting

of cottage homes for the aged. It has also a School of Philanthropy with a class of 50 students.

Needs.

The importance of a Juvenile Court is now generally recognized. Some system of collecting statistical reports from officials is also desirable.

UTAH.

MRS. IDA SMOOT DUSENBERRY, PROVO CITY, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Since the session of the last Legislature, at which time a law was passed making possible the appointment of judges and probation officers to serve in the juvenile court, the people of Utah have seen many changes of which they are justly proud.

During the past year, in all the cities of the first and second class, juvenile court rooms, with satisfactory judges and probation officers have been established.

A home for delinquent children has been opened, and, for the past nine months has given promise of becoming one of the greatest benefactors of the State.

During the past three months a committee of diligent workers has been successful in securing a large farm, pleasantly located, which is to be known as "Canyon Crest," which will furnish a home and employment for all misdirected children.

The juvenile courts in the different parts of the State have proved especially helpful to school teachers, in assisting to enforce the school law. Voluntary contributions have been received, both in money and professional labor.

All of the insane of the State are being cared for by the State mental hospital. Indications are very favorable for the establishment, during the coming year, of a modern and well equipped home for the feeble-minded.

A new building, modern in all respects, has been erected, during the past six months, in Salt Lake City, for the protection and care of those who are financially unfortunate.

With the growing population the demands for assistance are also increasing. Fully realizing this, the Governor, State

officials, Legislators and citizens unite in supporting any measure for the betterment of the poor and unfortunate of the State.

VERMONT.

REV. J. EDWARD WRIGHT, MONTPELIER, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session of the Legislature since the last report.

New Developments.

Hon. Redfield Proctor, U. S. Senator, has established the Vermont Sanatorium for the treatment and prevention of tuberculosis, and has devoted $150,000 to it. The institution is located in Pittsford, Rutland County; and its first Board of Trustees comprises fifteen prominent citizens.

Under the eye and ear test now required by law annually in our public schools, 41,373 children were examined last fall, and the eyesight or hearing of about one-third of them was found more or less imperfect.

Needs.

The State Prison, the House of Correction, and the jail in our largest city are overcrowded. The serious increase in the commitments to the House of Correction, and the Jail in Burlington, is traced by the officials to the increase of drunkenness, and its attendant evils under our local option law.

Remarks.

Interest has deepened especially in matters pertaining to the public health, in recent years. I might add that our public institutions have been subjected to an unusually strict scrutiny.

VIRGINIA.

DR. W. F. DREWRY, PETERSBURG, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The following bills were passed by the Legislature recently in session: — Authorizing the establishment of the "Virginia

Home and Industrial School for Girls" — a reformatory for white girls between the ages of seven and seventeen; to the Virginia Conference of Charities and Correction belongs the credit of inaugurating this humane and reformatory move in the interest of wayward girls. The establishment of a colony for insane epileptics, which for a while will be under the management of the Western State Hospital; the colony is located in the Piedmont section of the State near Lynchburg; the appropriation is insufficient to accomplish very much, yet an important step has been taken in the right direction, which will doubtless lead eventually to a State Colony for sane and insane epileptics.

The establishing of a State School for the colored Deaf and Blind children; the appropriation, however, is too small to accomplish anything worthy of note, yet it insures the beginning of a much needed institution in this State.

New Developments.

In some of the cities, notably Richmond, Norfolk, and perhaps Lynchburg, there has been considerable activity in associated charities, charity organizations, etc.

It is pleasing to state that Richmond has abandoned the term "City Almshouse," using instead thereof the term "City Home."

An ex-prisoner relief association has been organized, and has already done some good work.

Needs.

One of the crying needs of the State is an institution for the care and training of idiots and the feeble-minded. A bill was introduced in the Legislature looking to making provision for at least some of these unfortunates, but it failed to pass.

The greatest general need in the State is an intelligent organized system of charity and correction in the several communities.

WASHINGTON.

MISS ANNA H. MURRAY, GENERAL SECRETARY CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, SEATTLE, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

No session of the Legislature since the last report.

New Developments.

Washington is too busy with its rapid material progress to pay much attention to the developing of its charities and correction. There is however a decided trend towards better administration of City Charities. The Charity Organization Society of Seattle is making headway and in Spokane a new society with good promise of success, has been established.

Needs.

Among the most apparent needs is one for more system in making reports from the various institutions which shall be available for the National Conference. The value and necessity of accurate and full statistical information which may be used in planning for future development, is, apparently, but little understood or felt by many public officials.

WEST VIRGINIA.

R. H. BROWN, SECRETARY AND FIELD AGENT, W. VA. HUMANE SOCIETY, MORGANTOWN, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

There has been no new legislation in the State since my last report, due largely to the lack of enthusiasm among the charitable people of the State. I feel that the Legislature would aid and support any charitable work if the people would take it up and push it along.

New Developments.

As stated in report on Out-door Relief, several of the larger cities have appropriated quite large sums of money to aid the poor and needy within their corporate limits. The State has done nothing other than to increase the appropriations of the various institutions of the State. This has been a great help and more and better work is being done now than ever before.

Needs.

There should be more and better facilities at hand to battle with the "White Plague," or Tuberculosis. Living as we do in a

country where the climate is susceptible to very sudden changes and where those who are affected with this terrible malady are permitted to associate with their own families and with the public at large and are often taken into the wards of our hospitals where other sick persons are being treated, with no precautions being taken to stop the spread of the disease, there should be some law or some way devised by which all persons suffering with Tuberculosis could be treated in a hospital or sanitarium. Our physicians in this State, as in several others, are not careful enough in the treatment of this disease.

Remarks.

The West Virginia Humane Society, working in conjunction with the charitable people of the State, have been doing a large part of the work that has been done in this State. The Society has a large number of agents throughout the State and the people look to them for assistance, which is always given as far as practicable.

WISCONSIN.

H. GROTOPHORST, MEMBER STATE BOARD OF CONTROL, BARABOO, STATE CORRESPONDING SECRETARY.

Legislation.

The principal new legislation in connection with the Reformatory, Charitable and Penal institutions since our last report is:

First — The placing of the positions of employes of the various institutions of the state under our new civil service law, as enacted in Chapter 363, Laws of 1905. This bill provides for the appointment of employes on merit as determined by examination.

Second — Change in the age of commitment to the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys from the ages of 10 to 18, to the ages of 8 to 16.

New Developments.

Provision of $90,000 was made by the last legislature for the erection of a Tuberculosis Sanatorium. The site for this Sanatorium has already been selected, and the plans are well under way.

A new dining hall, with a capacity of 550, at a cost of $52,000, has been added to the State Hospital for the Insane. An electric lighting plant has been built and electric lights installed in this institution during the past winter.

At the State Prison provision has been made for a new cell house and the specifications are now being made.

Another cottage for girls has been added to the Home for the Feeble-Minded, increasing its capacity by 100, making its total capacity about 800.

Needs.

The immediate needs of our State Charitable, Reformatory and Penal institutions are:

First: A separate building at one of our State Hospitals for the Insane, for the epileptic insane. An appropriation for this was requested from the last legislature, but not granted.

Second: Increased capacity at the Home for Feeble-Minded at Chippewa Falls, and the State Reformatory at Green Bay. At present both institutions are overcrowded and unable to receive many persons who would be committed thereto were the room available.

DOMINION OF CANADA.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

REV. THOS. HUNTER BOYD, WAWEIG, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY FOR THE PROVINCE.

Legislation.

After much public discussion, a bill has been introduced this session in the Legislative Assembly for dealing with Truancy, and Compulsory Education.

New Developments.

The Social Wing of the Salvation Army acquired larger premises in St. John, and has rendered very great assistance to the destitute, and to immigrants during the past winter.

Needs.

We still need a Children's Protection Act.

The women of the Province have made an urgent plea for the appointment of a matron at the St. John's jail.

The feeling is growing, that at any rate in our larger centers there is a desirability for separate education of 'Exceptional' or 'Backward' children.

ONTARIO.

DR. A. M. ROSEBRUGH, TORONTO, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY OF THE PROVINCE.

Legislation.

There has been no new legislation in Ontario respecting Charities and Correction since last report.

New Developments.

During the year a cottage Institution for epileptics has been opened with accommodation for 35 men and 35 women, on good farm land containing 100 acres, near the town of Woodstock on the main line of the Grand Trunk Railroad between Niagara Falls and London.

The Ontario Society for the Reformation of Inebriates which was organized over a year ago commenced active operations on the first of January of this year and with encouraging results. The plan of working of this Society are unique. The probation system is combined with medical treatment. According to the nature of the case the treatment is conducted either in the form of home treatment or the inebriate is placed for from one to three weeks in hospital under the care of the medical officer of the Society. There is also a Medical Consulting Committee.

Needs.

Larger accommodation is required both in the Toronto Gaol and in the Central Prison. On account of overcrowding of these institutions proper classification of prisoners is impossible. For a number of years individual isolation of first offenders has been urged, but thus far without avail.

The adoption of the probation system has also been urged for a long time and we are hopeful that the question will be taken up very shortly by the new administration. We are also hopeful that the new Government will in the near future make adequate provision for the efficient treatment of indigent inebriates.

Remarks.

The probation system as a substitute for the Reform School is being put to a crucial test in Ontario just now. The Provincial Reformatory for Boys at Penetanguishene was closed over twelve months ago and the Provincial Refuge for Girls has been closed during the last year. The inmates have been placed in families on probation and thus far there seems to be no valid reason for regretting the change.

The promoters of the proposed bill for the economic treatment of indigent inebriates have not thought the time opportune for urging the adoption of this measure. It has the endorsement of the medical profession not only in this Province but also of the entire Dominion. We trust before another twelve months have passed the provisions of the bill will be translated into legislative enactment.

REPUBLIC OF CUBA.

DR. JUAN B. VALDES, DEPARTMENT DE BENEFICIENCIA HABANA, CUBA, CORRESPONDING SECRETARY FOR THE REPUBLIC.

The laws of Charity by which we are still governed, are in part the old Spanish "Law of Beneficencia" of 1875, and the order No. 271 of 1900, promulgated by the U. S. Military Government in Cuba during the Intervention, besides a number of rulings and regulations of the same origin, or dictated by the present government.

The character of the charitable institutions in Cuba is manifold; some are sustained by the State entirely, others are really municipal institutions, for which the State defrays all the expenses either on account of the towns being too poor, or unprovided for in their budgets and taxes, to take care of them, among these are hospitals, and Asylums for Children and for the aged poor.

Other institutions are of a quasi religious character, sus-

tained by the pious, and administrated by the Catholic clergy; among these we also have hospitals and asylums of various kinds.

Yet another class, which may be considered charitable, but really are kept up by a monthly quota of $1.00 or $1.50 of their members, providing them with instruction, recreation, and in case of sickness with medical assistance either in their homes or their "Sanatorias," are model institutions in their way.

Besides these there are a few institutions of a private and non-religious character which are supported by private donations entirely, or by those and the interest of legacies and other gifts.

The State provides for 29 hospitals, in which were cared for during the period from July 1st, 1903, to June 30th, 1904, 44,710 patients, with a monthly average of 3,717. The total number of deaths occurring in these hospitals from all causes was 2,662, with a monthly average of 225, or 37½ per cent., and during the period from July 1, 1904, to June 30th, 1905, we had 49,291 patients, with an average of 4,108, a total of 2,444 deaths (average, 206) or 32.35 per cent. These data are reproduced from a statistical report which I compiled for the Department of Charities of the Republic.

On the first of January, 1906, there were in the hospitals of Cuba about 4,000 sick persons.

The insane are cared for in a separate institution, which contained on the first of January of this year 1,683 inmates. But before they can be admitted to this special hospital, they are placed under observation for from 10 to 30 days, and if found demented by the attending physician or physicians, an order of the court is issued, authorizing their being received by the General Hospital for the Insane.

Cases of tuberculosis are admitted to the public hospitals in all stages of the disease, for most of them there are special and isolated wards for their reception. The diet allowance, however, which at present is only 20 cents, the same as for other patients, should be increased to 35 or 50 cents, as I advocated two years ago before the League against Tuberculosis and before the Department of Charities.

There is also in Havana a special Dispensary for tuberculosis, governed by the Department of Public Health, and another operated by the League mentioned above.

We have in our Republic seven asylums for the aged of

both sexes, none of which is sustained by either the State or Municipalities, but in part by private contributions, and in part by a per capita charge of $7.50 for the inmates sent by public corporations. Some of them have also resources of their own from bequests or endowments.

There is much done for children, but they are not cared for in an organized way. There are asylums for each sex, and some where both sexes are admitted. The State sustained two Industrial Schools until lately, when they were closed, the inmates being cared for in a private asylum, the Casa de Beneficiencia under contract with the State. A Correctional School for Boys, and another for Girls, are both under state control, the first mentioned has 250 to 300 inmates, the latter has about 125.

The Department of Charities also has a sub-office for the placing of children in families, which at present cares for 400 children, who either had been abandoned or came from the suppressed Industrial Schools.

In regard to the Criminal Class, and the other data which you ask, I have to state that it has been impossible for me to obtain them this year, but I hope that if the institutions a propósito shall help me, I shall be able to bring a complete record to the next conference.

About our future and present needs, I may say that the most important question is a good law of Charities in conformity with our constitution and our mode of living, and the organization of a "Society of Charities" to which the impulse was given in 1902 by Mr. Edward T. Devine, and of which I have worked out the statutes, awaiting only a favorable opportunity to establish the same with the co-operation of people who are interested in the well being of their less fortunate fellowmen.

OUTDOOR RELIEF.

The following is the information collected on this subject:

ARKANSAS. — In Arkansas the county is the unit for the care of the poor. The county judge has charge. The County Court may establish a County Poor Farm and place all the poor there under some trustworthy person, or if county has no farm the Court may let poor persons out to private families, paying them for their trouble. Law requires no reports, hence impossible to secure statistics.

CONNECTICUT. — About 4,000 persons were regular and about 7,000 occasional recipients of public outdoor relief during the year. The amount is decreasing somewhat through improved methods employed in some of the larger towns.

DELAWARE. — New Castle County reports tendency on the increase. Notwithstanding the mild winter the amount spent was only $301.25 less than in 1905.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. — Has no public outdoor relief.

GEORGIA. — In Atlanta the amount is about stationary; no statistics about other places.

INDIANA. — Public outdoor relief in Indiana is in the hands of the township trustees, who are ex-officio overseers of the poor. There are 1,016 such officials. In 1905 they gave $249,884.68 to the poor, 45,331 persons sharing in the relief — 21,587 males and 23,744 females. Complete statistics are published in the Indiana Bulletin of Charities and Correction for March, 1906, together with a history of outdoor relief in Indiana in the past ten years. State supervision of the work of the township overseers of the poor and an excellent law which embodies charity organization principles, have effected an average annual decrease of 29,865 in the number of persons aided and $337,192.09 in the expenditures, since 1895.

KENTUCKY. — In Louisville this relief consists only of coal during severe weather, and free transportation to needy persons sent to their families or to find work. On the decline for several years in cities where organized charities exist.

LOUISIANA. — Decreasing, amount for 1905 $4,644.00. (No statement as to the territory covered by this amount, probably New Orleans.)

MARYLAND. — The only public relief in most counties is given in the shape of pensions. This is not general.

MASSACHUSETTS. — The approximate average number relieved in 1905 was 20,419. Total expense, $975,938. Average weekly cost of each person * relieved $0.91.8. Cost of relief per capita of inhabitants of Massachusetts, $0.347. These figures do not include the cost of administration nor the cost of vagrancy, the latter was $26,734 for an estimated number of 117,515 cases.

* This should probably read *family* instead of *person*. — EDITOR.

The cost of relief was $67,822.00 more than for 1904, but per capita of inhabitants it was 1.2 cents less. The cost of vagrancy was $865.00 more than for 1904, but the estimated number of cases was nearly 20,000 less. The total pauper expense of Massachusetts, including care of the pauper insane, was $3,098,035.

MICHIGAN.—There does not appear to be any material increase. The Superintendents of the Poor report to the Secretary of State abstracts not yet compiled.

MINNESOTA. — In 1905, $131,000, (estimate). (Exact figures were had for 43 counties.) Total public expenditure for the poor, $400,000 (est.). This amount includes the former, and expenses of almhouses, boarding and nursing paupers, transportation, medical attendance and medicine, burials, per diem of county commissioners while serving the poor, and miscellaneous expenses. While the population has been increasing the outdoor relief has remained stationary. Twenty-four counties have the town system. Their expenditure is less than in the other counties, as a rule, but they do the poorest work. They save money by not taking care of the poor at all.

MISSOURI. — No public outdoor relief has been given for many years in St. Louis, and but little in Kansas City.

NEBRASKA. — In Douglas County 2,208 persons received outdoor relief and about one thousand in other counties.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. — The cost of outdoor relief for 1905 was $242,363.56, an increase since 1901 of $71,469.94, or nearly 42 per cent.

NEW JERSEY.—Outdoor relief is somewhat decreasing. An interesting example of reduction of expenditure which had largely been a hurtful waste comes from the city of Paterson. During the ten years from 1895 to 1905 the average annual expenditure was $19,444.01. It had long been known that there were many people receiving assistance from the city who were not in need. Through the investigation and reports of the Charity Organization Society, the Aldermanic Committee of Charities and Correction decided in June, 1905, to cut off all relief for one month, and to limit it for a time to $200 a month. The result is shown in the following table:

	Cash.	Burials.	Coal.
1904-'05	$21,238 50	$1,150 00	$835 20
1905-'06	4,946 50	690 00	484 80
Reduction	$16,292 00	$460 00	$350 40

Total amount saved $17,102 40

Before the effort for reform the Outdoor Relief in Paterson was much greater in amount than it was in many much more populous cities. It is now somewhat about the average of cities where there is a vigorous Charity Organization Society which ensures that no really needy person is unrelieved.

NEW YORK. — During the year ending Sept. 30, 1904, public outdoor relief was granted to 168,183 persons at a cost of $821,-394.38, denoting an increase over the previous year.

NORTH CAROLINA. — Outdoor relief to 3,703 cost $80,644.22; indoor relief to 1,293 cost $69,629.24; total 4,996, $150,273.46.

OHIO.— By the Infirmary Directors 13,733 persons at a cost of $230,401.03; by Township Trustees 43,070 persons, $315,-846.70; total, 56,803 persons, $546,247.73. By order of Judges of Probate Courts 1,059 blind persons received relief to the amount of $211.009.

OREGON. — The average number of families in Multnomah County (Portland) receiving outdoor relief is 24. In other counties they are allowed monthly payments (averaging $8) for those having homes, or provided for by private contract for those having no homes. This applies to those counties having no almshouses.

RHODE ISLAND. — Ten thousand three hundred and forty-seven persons are reported having received outdoor relief, expenditure $38,550.00.

WASHINGTON.— Except in counties containing large cities very little outdoor relief is given. The statistics received were not accurate enough to be of any value.

WEST VIRGINIA. — Public outdoor relief is increasing in this State.

WISCONSIN. — Judging from the movement of population in poor houses we can report a small decrease.

ONTARIO. — There is very little outdoor relief given in Ontario, outside of Toronto. The latter city distributes about 5 cents per capita of the entire population, viz., $15.000, the population being about 300,000. It is not increasing. The per capita amount is decreasing. No relief is given until the family is visited, and relief recommended by a district visitor.

STATE CONFERENCES OF CHARITIES.

From the states and provinces following come reports of State Conferences. Many of these indicate results in influencing and guiding public opinion leading to improvements in law and practice. By order of the Executive Committee, the General Secretary of the National Conference attends as many of the State Conferences as possible. During the year he attended those of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, New York and New Jersey.

COLORADO — The result of our State Conference held in January, 1906, (the first since 1902), was the appointment of a legislative committee, Lieut. Governor, Fred W. Parks, Chairman, with a view of drafting bills to be presented to the next General Assembly; this committee will report progress at our State Conference to be held on November 18th, in Denver, just prior to the convening of the Legislature.

During the Conference many needs and demands for the improvement of conditions in our state institutions, outdoor relief and the charity work of the state generally were reviewed and undoubtedly great good will be the outcome.

DELAWARE — We expect to hold a State Conference next fall. Meetings having a similar purpose, are frequently held under the auspices of the Philanthropy Committee of the Wilmington New Century Club.

ILLINOIS — An annual meeting is held usually in November. The President for 1906 is E. P. Bicknell, 79 Dearborn St., Chicago. The secretaryship is at present vacant.

INDIANA — The fifteenth annual session will convene in Muncie, October, 1906. Secretary J. Frank Mann, Muncie.

IOWA — A State Conference meets annually. C. W. Wassam, Secretary, Iowa City. Date of next Conference not fixed There is also a quarterly conference of officers and superintendents of State Institutes, which meets under the direction of the State Board of Control.

KANSAS — The Conference will be held at Topeka, December, 1906. Secretary, H. W. Charles, Topeka.

KENTUCKY — The Conference has held three sessions within the year. The president has devoted much time and effort to secure advanced legislation. Several important measures have been successful.

The influence of the Conference has been directed to the need of Organized Charity. One new society at Owensboro, has been established this year.

MARYLAND. — Has had State Conference in the past. None arranged for this year.

MASSACHUSETTS.— The State Conference of Charities held a meeting in Boston last November. Its discussion of juvenile courts and of medical inspection in the public schools were important items in the campaign for these two important measures. The secretary of the conference was last year, and still is, David F. Tilley, 60 Devonshire Street, Boston.

MICHIGAN. — The 24th Annual Session was held at Allegan, December 5-7, 1905. The 25th Session will be held at Kalamazoo first week in December, 1906. Exact date not yet fixed.

MINNESOTA — The next conference will be held at Red Wing, in November, 1906. Secretary, E. D. Solenberger, Court House, Minneapolis.

MISSOURI — A State Confernece of Charities and Correction meets annually. The next meeting will be in Jefferson City in the early part of January, 1907. Secretary, James L. Dawson, St. Louis.

NEBRASKA — The State Conference of Charities and Correction will hold its next meeting October 9, 1906, at Norfolk. Secretary, John Davis, Lincoln.

NEW HAMPSHIRE — The State Conference of Charities and Correction was organized in Concord by the State Board of Charities in February, 1899. It meets in Concord biennially during the session of the legislature and upon alternate years in different towns and cities throughout the State. The next meeting will be held in Franklin, April 17, 1906. Secretary, Miss Caroline E. Evans, Concord.

NEW JERSEY — The State Conference of Charities meets annually. For 1907 the President is Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield. Secretary, Mrs. F. C. Jacobson, 9 Broad St., Newark. Local conferences are also held in Newark and the Oranges.

NEW YORK — The thirty-fifth annual convention of the County Superintendents of the Poor, was held at Lake Placid, June 20, 21 and 22, 1905. President Kirkpatrick was re-elected. The next meeting will be held at Lakewood, Chautauqua County, June 28, 29 and 30, 1906. The Secretary and Treasurer is J. W. Ives of Wyoming County.

The seventh State Conference of Charities and Correction will meet at Rochester, November 13-15, 1906. President William Mabon, M. D. Secretary, Wm. Bradford Buck. The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

OHIO — The fifteenth annual State Conference of Charities and Correction was held at Tiffin, November 21-24, 1905. Hereafter these Conferences will be under the direct supervision of the Board of State Charities. An act was passed by the Legislature of 1906 authorizing this Board to hold conferences of officials connected with public charitable and correctional institutions and that all persons invited to such conferences shall be entitled to actual expenses payable from the funds of the institutions which they represent. This new law will create a greater interest in and attendance at the State Conference, and permits the Board of State Charities to hold county conferences where local conditions warrant such meetings. The next State Conference will be held at Marietta in October, 1906. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, State House, Columbus.

OREGON — A State Conference of Charities and Correction meets annually, usually in Portland. Secretary, Mrs. M. R. Trumbull, 305 Jefferson St., Portland.

VIRGINIA. — We have a well organized State Conference, which will meet this year in Petersburg, in May. This association, though not a large one, has already accomplished much in directing attention to the needs of the delinquent and defective classes. President, Rev. J. M. Pilcher, D. D., Petersburg. Secretary, George B. Davis, Richmond.

WISCONSIN. — Association of Trustees and Superintendents of County Asylums for the Insane of Wisconsin meets annually. Secretary, J. J. Reiser, Wausau, Wis.

ONTARIO — The Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction is to a large extent a provincial organization. Its meetings have never, as yet been held outside the Province of Ontario. The secretary is Lee Williams, Toronto Children's Aid Society, 229 Simcoe St., Toronto. The President is Dr. R. W. Bruce Smith, Government Inspector of Hospitals and County Gaols.

CUBA — We have since 1902, annual conferences; the first one was celebrated in Havana, the second in Santa Clara, the third in Mantanzas and the fourth in Camaguey. The fifth will be celebrated on the 14th to 16th of May, 1906, in Santiago de Cuba. Dr. Juan B. Valdés, Secretary.

The classified tables of the State Institutions will be found as Appendix H, on page 630 *et seq.*

IV.

Children.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.*

BY HASTINGS H. HART, GEN. SUPT. CHILDREN'S HOME AND AID SOCIETY, CHICAGO, CHAIRMAN.

The work assigned to this Committee has formerly been given to three separate committees, the Committee on Dependent Children, the Committee on Delinquent Children and the Committee on Juvenile Courts. The consolidation of these three committees into one, with two general sessions and five section meetings, is a very significant action. It is a recognition of the fact that the work for children is essentially and inseparably one. Dependent, Delinquent and Defective children are not divided into separate classes by hard and fast lines, and we cannot prescribe definite treatment in advance for each separate class of children.

The action recognizes that the Juvenile Court is not simply a branch of the Criminal Court, to administer justice to children of the criminal class, but that it is a great social agency, to inquire with discriminating insight into the conditions of the children of all classes which may be brought to it; to determine after patient inquiry what ought to be done for the child; and then to secure the doing of that thing, either through its own agents, the probation officers, or through some other fit and competent agency.

Through mutual conference and co-operation and, especially through the free discussions in the National Conference of Charities and Correction, there has come about within the past few years a remarkable agreement of opinion among those who are engaged in child-helping work on many points which were formerly questions of dispute. The vigorous and, sometimes, bitter discussions of former years have largely ceased. Your Committee believes that there is substantial agreement among those who have studied the child problem on the following points:

* Discussions on Children, pp. 537, 574.

A CONSENSUS OF OPINION.

1. The ties between parents and children are sacred and should not be lightly broken. If it can be done without sacrificing the interests of the child, he should remain with his own parents, who should be stimulated and helped to meet their parental obligations, as far as possible. Every reasonable effort should be made to repair breaches and defects in the home before breaking up the family relation.

2. Institutional care of healthy normal children for long periods is objectionable. It should be a temporary expedient. The proper office of the institution for such children is to provide a temporary refuge, pending transfer to a selected family home; or to furnish a brief training preparatory to family life; or to afford opportunity for physical renovation through surgery, medicine or diet; or to care temporarily for children whose parents are in temporary distress, until such time as the parents may be able to resume the care of their children. In theory, at least, this is now the work of the great majority of the institutions which care for dependent children. In the central states most of the orphan asylums have become boarding places for children, whose parents pay for their care what they are able. Comparatively few people anywhere now advocate the use of institutions to bring up children to manhood and womanhood.

3. Institutional care for educational purposes is necessary for a portion of the deaf and blind children and for a portion of the delinquent children; but it is recognized that in large cities, public schools can be provided for many deaf and blind children and that many delinquent children can be successfully cared for by the Juvenile Court, through probation officers, without institutional training.

4. It is the office of the juvenile reformatory to create right character in delinquent children, in order to fit them for an early return to the natural conditions of home life. To accomplish this end the institution must utilize intellectual training, manual training, religious teaching, personal influences, amusements, granting and deprivation of privileges, etc. The institution must follow the child, after his release, encouraging, stimulating, befriending and if necessary recalling him for further training.

5. Permanent institutional care all through life is desirable

for feeble minded children (especially feeble minded girls) for epileptic children and for certain crippled, deformed and otherwise incurable children.

6. The selected family home of foster parents is the best substitute for the natural home. The foster home can be used advantageously for many young children of the dependent class without preliminary institutional care; for other dependent children, after a brief period of training and renovation in an institution, and for delinquent children either as probationers in charge of the Juvenile Court or on parole, after training in a juvenile reformatory.

The foster home may be used either as a boarding home, the board to be paid by the state or by relatives, as is done extensively in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania and the District of Columbia; or as a "Free Home," in which the child is placed without payment of board, but remaining under the guardianship and the close supervision of the agency by which it was placed; or as an adoptive home in which the child is legally adopted and passes from the control of the placing-out agency.

It is universally agreed that the placing-out system demands the utmost care in selecting homes and constant oversight and watchcare in order to prevent children from being neglected, abused or made drudges.

The work of placing out may be done by societies organized for that purpose or by institutions, in behalf of their own wards, or by agents of counties or states in behalf of the wards of the community.

There is a growing sentiment in favor of public supervision of the placing-out work of private agencies. This sentiment has taken the form of law in New York, New Jersey, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota and other states.

Small institutions work at a disadvantage in placing children in family homes, owing to the large relative expense of maintaining agents and visiting children scattered over wide areas. Some such institutions do their placing-out work through reliable placing-out societies, paying the actual expense of finding a home and of placing and visiting the child.

7. The work of placing out children by public agencies has been done in several different ways:

a. Children have been apprenticed or bound out by township or county authorities, usually in the immediate vicinity. This plan has been found objectionable, first, because of the inexperience of the agents and their lack of proper facilities for doing the work; second, because of the abuses arising from placing children with selfish people; third, when a child is placed in or near his original environment he is likely to be embarrassed by his own previous record or that of his parents, and may be liable to the injurious interference of relatives.

b. Children have been placed by agents of the state. In Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Colorado and Rhode Island, state schools for dependent children have been established for the temporary care of public wards and those children are placed in family homes by agents of the state. In Indiana children are placed in family homes by agents of the State Board of Charities. In New Jersey and the District of Columbia there have been established Boards of Public Guardians, which have authority to place children in family homes. These methods of placing children in family homes by agents of the state have an advantage over the work of county or township agents because trained agents can be employed and the children can be distributed over a wider area.

8. The Juvenile Court is to be a permanent part of our judiciary system. Its functions should include, in most cities, the cases of both dependent and delinquent children. Its usefulness depends chiefly upon the character and spirit of the Judge and the efficiency of the probation officers. To preserve these essentials, it is necessary to free the Judge and the probation officers from the vicissitudes and the paralyzing influence of partisan politics.

The Juvenile Court comes in as an impartial, non-sectarian agency, vested with extraordinary powers both for ascertaining the needs of the child and for securing the execution of that which will be for his interests. The Court can, through its probation officers, institute an authoritative, intelligent and searching inquiry into the environment, the condition and the needs of the child. Having acquired this information, it can make it efficient by putting it into the form of a judicial order, with all the power of the Court behind it; and in executing this order the

Court can call to its assistance not only those public institutions, which are created by the Commonwealth for the care of the dependent and the defective, but it can also make use of those private organizations which gladly put their facilities at the disposal of the Court. And it can also make direct use of those individuals, constantly increasing in number, who are willing as volunteers to put their time, their money or their homes at the disposal of the Court.

The success of the Juvenile Court in reaching the ideal of service to the state and to her dependent wards is everywhere dependent upon the support of an intelligent public sentiment, finding expression in the personal efforts of good men and women like those who form the Juvenile Court Committee in Chicago and other cities. Where the Court has been left to be simply an agent of perfunctory officialism, with probation officers selected under the old spoils system, as a reward for partisan services rendered, it will invariably be found that the Juvenile Court law is held in contempt both by the judges and the officers of the Court and by the intelligent members of the community who observe its operations. On the other hand, even with an imperfect law, with a court dividing its time between the cases of neglected children and the "more important matters" of adult crime and large business affairs, and with probation officers who at first possess more zeal than knowledge, excellent work has been done where the good people of the community have been willing to put themselves into the effort.

9. A most important development has been the recent movement in several cities in the direction of personal and volunteer services of intelligent and devoted young business men who have been willing to become friend and comrade with some reckless delinquent boy and to give the necessary thought and study to the problem of his development into a strong and worthy manhood.

While there may be some difference of opinion among the members of the Children's Section on some of the points above stated, your Committee believes that they will meet with general approval.

EVOLUTION OF PRINCIPLES.

The consensus of opinion above stated has been reached through many years of discussion and struggle. An interesting

illustration of the process of evolution is found in the long and sometimes warm discussion which was waged in the National Conference of Charities and Correction between those who advocated the institutional plan of bringing up children to manhood and womanhood in orphan asylums, industrial schools, etc., and the advocates of the placing-out system of bringing up children in selected family homes. This discussion began almost at the foundation of the conference and continued up to the year 1899, when it was practically closed by the epoch-making report of the Committee on the Care of Destitute and Neglected Children which was prepared and presented by the Hon. Thomas M. Mulry, President of the St. Vincent de Paul Society of New York.

In the early years of this discussion, there was a sharp division. Advocates of the institution plan charged that children placed in homes were treated like slaves; that many of them were found in western Reform Schools and became criminals as they grew up; that they were given out recklessly to almost anyone who would receive them and that many were practically abandoned by those who sent them out.

On the other hand, advocates of the placing-out system denounced institutions in unsparing terms. Some went so far as to say that the worst home was better than the best institution. Others declared that institutions for dependent children were entirely unnecessary and that all such children could be cared for in family homes.

The discussion went on from year to year. The advocates of the institutional plan pointed out the advantage of being able to control the child's environment, his sanitary conditions, his intellectual, physical and religious training, and the advantage of being able to secure him against the contaminating influence of the street. They pointed to the abuses practiced upon children bound to avaricious farmers and penurious housewives. They told of children recklessly disposed of without suitable investigation and left without supervision.

The advocates of the placing-out system emphasized the advantages of home life, with its free and natural atmosphere and with the care and training of selected foster parents. They urged the disadvantages of "institutionalism" — the artificial environment and its unfavorable effect upon the initiative, inde-

pendence and force of the child. They dwelt upon the contamination which inevitably arises from massing children in large numbers; and they grew enthusiastic over the saving to the benevolent, incident to the use of the family home plan instead of the institutional plan.

As years went on the two opposing factions gradually came together. The advocates of the institutional plan came to recognize the disadvantages and limitations of that plan. The example of the Cleveland Protestant Orphan Asylum in sending its children out early to family homes was followed by other orphan asylums. The orphan asylums and children's homes became more and more temporary refuges for children of parents in temporary distress. On the other hand, the advocates of the placing-out system came to recognize the legitimate work of the institution in preparing children, who had been neglected, for family life. It was found that a very brief period of physical and moral renovation and of training in the decencies and amenities of life enabled the child to reach a much better family home than would otherwise have been possible. The greater part of the placing-out societies established temporary homes for this work and thus became themselves institutional people and were no longer in a position to indulge in indiscriminate criticism of institutions.

At the great New York Conference of Charities and Correction, in 1898, there were signs of harmony between the two wings and at Cincinnati, in 1899, the long extended controversy was brought to a close in the admirable report of the Committee on the Care of Destitute and Neglected Children, which has already been mentioned. That report has become one of the classics of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

MR. MULRY'S REPORT.

The Chairman of the Committee, Hon. Thomas M. Mulry, of New York, presented both sides of the question fairly. He said:

"The last Conference of Charities and Correction, held in New York, was probably the most representative, as it certainly was the most fruitful, in results upon the child-saving work. While those taking part in the discussion held positive views, there was a spirit of toleration; and the interchange of ideas

and the moderate expressions of views proved that the differences of opinion were not as great as had been at first imagined."

Mr. Mulry's report emphasizes the "absolute necessity of preserving the home, wherever possible," (i. e., preserving the child's own home). It says: "There is a growing tendency on the part of many of the poor to shirk the responsibility of the parents and to transfer to others the duty that is strictly their own. * * * Do not be in a hurry to send the children to an institution until you are convinced of the hopelessness of preserving the home. * * * If the charitable men and women of this land would take a personal interest in such cases, * * * giving them assistance in a way which will not degrade the beneficiary, much will have been done to advance this great question of the care of dependent children."

The report emphasized "the good work accomplished by the institutions in the past" as well as the fact that "the institution has an important place to fill in the future on the disciplinary and educational lines, and the care of those children who are prevented by circumstances from being placed in homes."

The report noted also that "the improvement in the industrial training of the children during the past few years has been of great benefit to the inmates of the institutions and has resulted in sending large numbers of them out into the world well equipped for the battle of life."

The report of Mr. Mulry's Committee advocated the adoption of the placing-out system, wherever practicable. Referring to the New York conference in 1898, the report said: *"The preponderance of opinion seemed to be in favor of placing the children in good homes,* where such could be found and circumstances warranted such action being taken." It continued: "It was said that many children were kept longer than necessary in the institution, because having no relatives there were no persons to claim them; and such children, it was thought, might be well placed in good homes, providing the families were of the same religious faith as the child. The earlier they are placed in such families the better it is for the child. * * * There are homes in abundance throughout our cities, our towns, our farming section, for every orphan child, if the people will but open their hearts and brighten their homes by studying in

what way they may best show their love for their less fortunate fellow-beings."

Caution was urged, as follows: "The placing-out system needs the most careful supervision; and those interested in the work realize how prone to selfishness people are, and that many wish the children only for the work they can obtain from them."

The views set forth in this report were not a matter of theory with the chairman of the committee. Mr. Mulry stated that "in New York State the Catholic Home Bureau has been recently organized and incorporated. Its object is to place dependent Catholic children in homes. * * * The various institutions have shown their interest in the new organization by placing in its possession the names and conditions of the children who are fit subjects for placing in family homes. The cordial support received from them and from the public generally proves the opportuneness of this movement."

This remarkable report, both in its matter and in its spirit, was generally accepted as a fair expression of the consensus of all parties concerned, and while a few people may still cling to the more radical views which were formerly current, that report stands and will stand as the final word upon the long continued controversy.

Some of the Children's Home Societies which stood out firmly against institutions have since established Receiving Homes for the temporary care of their wards. "Catholic Home Bureaus" have been organized in Milwaukee and in Chicago, though the Chicago Bureau has not yet begun placing children.

The Lutheran Church, which has been a consistent advocate of the institutional plan, has organized the Kinderfreund Society, a placing-out agency which is operating efficiently in several states; and has already transformed one large orphanage into an educational institution.

The accepted principles which we have already stated represent the results of past discussions, tested in the practical experience of actual work.

THE MEASURE OF RESPONSIBILITY.

1. "Some place where the needs of a child in want can be analyzed and a remedy suggested and applied."

2. Such co-operation that all agencies may unite effectively in working out the plan.

3. Efficient execution of whatever plan may be decided upon.

4. Such supervision as shall secure to the child the permanent advantage of what has thus been done.

5. Such records and observations as will make available the acquired experience.

It is manifestly our duty to so organize and carry on child-helping work in all its branches that it shall be in the highest degree preventive, constructive, adequate, progressive and complete. This means a sufficient number of trained and qualified workers to give the necessary time to work out each case to its final conclusion, and not to be compelled to leave it half finished trusting in Providence for the results.

James H. Eastman,
Vida Hunt Francis,
Mrs. Wm. W. Frazier,
Ida L. Gregory,
S. J. Hathaway,
A. J. Hutton,
Charles Hutzler,
Grace Johnston,
J. J. Kelso,
Mrs. J. W. Martin,
Martha H. C. Mitchell,
F. H. Nibecker,
Emma L. Quinlan,
Geo. B. Robinson,
Lucy M. Sickels,
Mrs. Deshea Breckenridge,
Joseph P. Byers,
A. W. Clark,
Grafton D. Cushing,
Martha P. Falconer,
Harriet B. Jones, M. D.,
Helen W. Rogers,
J. Moore White,
Willis J. Brown,
Arthur L. Frazer.
Hastings H. Hart, *Chairman.*

THE FULL MEASURE OF RESPONSIBILITY.

BY WILLIAM H. PEAR, ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF BOSTON CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY.

Genuine help can be rendered to those in need only when full responsibility is realized and accepted, and when scientific inquiry — i. e., diagnosis of the need — is followed by assistance which aims to remove the cause of the need, or by relief that is adequate, so far as that is possible. How many of us who are en-

gaged in work for children, in children's aid societies, day nurseries and asylums, would find, by reviewing the individual cases dealt with, that they would stand the test of comparison with this standard? The fact that one has it in his power to offer a certain kind of assistance, is no reason why he should address himself simply to the question of giving or withholding that assistance; considering merely whether he can take the child as asked, instead of that vastly important consideration, should the child be taken from its family at all.

THE NEED OF DIAGNOSIS.

Many years ago a long advance step was taken in removing the dependent child from the almshouse, and the hospitable asylum rose to supply the need. Then the development of the placing-out system, came, in some instances to replace, and quite generally to supplement and modify the work of the asylum. During the past twenty years we have focussed our attention on the question, how best to care for the children; the relative merits of the placing-out and the institution methods have been discussed. I wish to urge that we now turn our attention to this other very important phase of our work, the need of what may be called case diagnosis and its attendant responsibilities.

Here is an obligation not to be shirked. It rests upon every agency at the moment when the individual child seeks admission to its care, for there is always a chance that there may be no other human agency to intervene between that child and want or even calamity. The responsibility at this point is yours and you must face it. These applicants are seldom far sighted. They are in distress, and they do not know what they really need. They have appeared at your door, but they may reach no other in season, except with your assistance. One of two things, therefore, must be done; you must either deal with the situation yourself, or put the applicants in touch with the best service that your community affords. In any case there can be no such thing as proper and adequate assistance without careful diagnosis of the need; and if we regard the occasion as one in which we have merely to decide whether or not to receive the child into our institution, we have not struck the pace which present day standards require.

Consider the situation for a moment from the point of view of the community. In the first place, it must be admitted that

the social forces of any community are very inadequately organized if there is not some place where the needs of a child in want can be analyzed, and a remedy suggested and applied. If a child is ill, it is possible to have the case diagnosed speedily and prescribed for in a dispensary, or treated in a hospital clinic, by an individual physician skilled in the work he is called upon to do. But if a child is in need, or if, as is often the case, family need is thought by relatives and friends to be child need, in how many places can the same skillful treatment be assured?

It may perhaps be conceded that the most scientific and economically sound plan, in theory, would be to have a central bureau of inquiry and advice, where all cases of child need might be diagnosed, and to which all helping agencies might refer all applicants. With such a single bureau duplication of effort would be avoided at the outset. But it is obvious that such a plan only needs to be stated to reveal any number of practical difficulties. The very size of a city like New York, for example, as well as the definite classification of its organizations, no doubt makes the single bureau at once impracticable. Neverthless the two main features of such a plan are apparent and well worth noting for the purpose of seeing how far it may be possible to approximate them. I refer to

(1) The elimination of waste effort, and
(2) The intensification and wise direction of effort.

A CLEARING HOUSE OF EXPERTS.

Whether or not the first object is attained by the plan of a single bureau need not matter, provided there is effective cooperation between agencies in their work. But the second and more important consideration, the thoroughness and skill with which the work is done, demands our earnest consideration. Such a bureau as I have referred to would be a sort of clearing house, officered by experts, whose experience would constantly grow more valuable through the large number of cases with which they would deal. The agents should be shrewd and trained observers, with some clear understanding of the symptoms of mental and physical, as well as moral, defect or disorder, and they should be in close touch with consulting physicians. They should be men and women of character and trained intelligence; sympathetic, constructively imaginative, wise; with an understanding of

human nature, and a wide knowledge of the community's resources for help. And besides these qualities they should have this keen sense of their responsibility for the maintenance and developments of the highest possible standards. Here we would have an agency which would resemble, in its functions, a combination of dispensary and hospital; ready to diagnose and to refer, as the need required, to special agencies for expert work in special lines.

For the purpose of outlining the various stages through which the work of such a bureau should proceed, I wish to call attention to

EIGHT ESSENTIAL PRINCIPLES.

(1) *Co-operation:* Keeping in close touch with all agencies to prevent duplication of effort at the outset (an end best attained through a central registration bureau, where all agencies make inquiry concerning each case before acting), or, it may be, uniting effectively with another agency in working out a plan agreed upon.

(2) *Diagnosis of the Need:* The work of an expert investigator with constructive imagination to determine the underlying, not the apparent, cause of the need.

(3) *Decision as to the Remedy:* The plan for attacking, and, so far as possible, removing the cause; involving, besides a keen analysis of all the features of the case, the determination as to the precise conditions to be required of all concerned; what measure of financial responsibility should be borne by relatives, etc.

(4) *Application of the Remedy:* Making effective the decision. One of the most important considerations, its employment or its absence marking the distinction between effective effort and cheap advice.

(5) *Responsibility, Direct and Indirect, Upon Admission:* That is to say, the direct responsibility for the proper care of the child, and the indirect responsibility for observation, and, if necessary, for definite action, to enforce or assist in carrying out the conditions prescribed. This latter may involve some definite action, quite apart from the care of the child.

(6) *Investigation Before Discharge:* In cases where the child has been taken, the necessary assurance that discharge is justified and proper; that conditions have been complied with;

or it may be the discovery that further extension of care is imperative, if all that has been done is not to go for naught.

(7) *Subsequent Inquiry to Learn Results:* The very necessary step by which to test the real value of our work, and, in many instances, the one instrument with which to make our work effective.

(8) *Tabulation of Results:* The necessary statistical work by means of which the valuable record of our experience is made serviceable for study and for future guidance. A topical index of the important features of cases dealt with, and also of the character of the work done by other agencies with whom we have perhaps co-operated.

HOW THESE PRINCIPLES WORK.

Now let me tell you a true story that will illustrate the working of these principles. About two years ago Mrs. Blank, a widow, asked the Children's Aid Society to take, for a few weeks, her two children, aged four and a half and three. She said that she was tired, and thought a few weeks' freedom from the care of the little ones would be a great relief. Admitting the premise, which was evident, her conclusion was, after seeing the children, easy to reach. The woman was working in a shop for $4.50 per week, and living with her aged parents in one of the suburbs; the man not strong, but working some, and the old woman just able to do the housework. It was easy to see that all was not well with the mother physically.

Inquiry at the registration bureau of the Associated Charities showed that they had no record of the family, nor had any inquiry concerning the woman or children been made by any other agency. Note here the first step in *co-operation.* Investigation at the home confirmed the mother's story, and also revealed the fact that she had a serious illness, for which a physician had long before advised an operation. It was clear, therefore, that simply to take the children for a few weeks, at first sight a kindly thing to do, would be no real help.

She was at length persuaded, though only after repeated interviews, to allow our agent to accompany her to one of our consulting physicians, a woman, who confirmed the finding of the other physician. *Diagnosis of the need*: the mother's health should be restored if possible, so that she can stand some chance

of continuing to support her children. *Decision as to the remedy*: she should be sent to a hospital for the operation, which will be performed by our physician, and in the meantime the children must be cared for without expense to her. This definite decision is therefore given and recorded: "John and Sarah are to be boarded in a family at the expense of the Society. Case to be reconsidered in four weeks."

Now comes the *application of the remedy*. The appointed time for mother and children to come to the office arrives, but they did not. She has decided that she "can't do it, after all." She will get along as she has. This our investigating agent discovered on going to look them up. Further argument follows, and at length prevails, and the little family reaches the office in charge of the agent, who has not dared to leave the woman for fear she would not hold to her purpose.

We now enter the fifth stage: *Direct responsibility* for the good care of the children, and *indirect responsibility* for the mother. She must be conducted to the very door of the hospital by the investigating agent, while the placing-out visitor takes the children to the family that she has carefully chosen. A slight suspicion regarding their physical condition has, however, caused her to take them first to the Eye and Ear Infirmary, where adenoids are removed and an ear treated.

As the case is to be reconsidered in four weeks, the investigating agent makes an entry on her daily calendar, and when the day arrives she learns from the doctor the mother's condition; in other words, here is *investigation before discharge*. The doctor reports that the woman has made a good recovery but needs at least three weeks' rest in the country before going to work. It is accordingly decided to extend the time and arrange for the woman to go to a convalescent home. Again the agent makes a note on the calendar, and again, when the day arrives, she learns the mother's condition. This time it is found to be excellent, and accordingly they all return home.

At the time of giving the decision to discharge the children, we have decided on a definite plan for *subsequent inquiry*, to learn results: an inquiry in two weeks to be sure that the woman's strength is proving sufficient to enable her to work. Another inquiry, made a year later, resulted in the woman's calling to tell

how she was getting on, and bringing with her a friend who was in trouble. "I have brought her," she said, "because you make people do things that are good for them, whether they want to or not."

As to the eighth principle, the *tabulation of results;* the reason that this case is available for illustration is because there is a card in our "topical index" headed, "Parents, work for — case of John and Sarah Blank."

TWO KINDS OF CASES.

There are two kinds of cases which especially require the most careful and scientific dealing, and together they form a very large proportion of all that are received. First, those in which the separation of the children from their parents should be permitted only upon certain conditions which aim at reconstruction. The case just described is an example of this very large class. Simply to remove the children from the family as requested, would have been as purposeless and ineffectual as for a physician to treat symptoms instead of the disease. It was proper and necessary here to take the children, but the separation was only justified by the effort made to restore the mother's health.

Then there is another kind of case which comes in a great variety of forms, and which may safely be said to include more than half of all that are presented to the Society which I represent; the case in which the separation of the child from the family is quite unnecessary and therefore improper. Take for example the case of a young Swedish couple, who recently asked to have their baby taken so that the woman could go out to work and add to the income. The man was earning $11.00 per week and nearly all went for food and rent. Here was a case for a friendly visitor who would go into the home and teach the young wife ordinary household economies, how to provide, how to cook, etc. To take a child away under such circumstances would be distinctly wrong; instead, the case was placed in the hands of the Associated Charities, for visiting in the home.

WORK OF FIVE SOCIETIES.

While it cannot be said that such work is done nowhere else, there are but five of our large cities in which the children's

aid societies have organized special departments for this work of case diagnosis; for giving information and advice. Beginning here in Philadelphia, in the year 1882, with the organization of the Children's Aid Society and Bureau of Information, the work soon proved of the greatest value. Miss Kerr, the superintendent of the society, says of it to-day, "It is impossible to estimate the value of its personal service, involving often many days of investigation and study, which is freely given from this Bureau to every case where the interests of a child and a home are at stake."

The work was first undertaken in Boston about twenty years ago by Mr. Birtwell. While considering applications for the admission of boys to the training farm at that time maintained by the Boston Children's Aid Society, he found himself confronted by cases presenting a variety of needs; cases wherein he could see that only wise advice was needed; others in which, to reach the root of the difficulty, he found it necessary to do something more than simply to take the child.

Case by case these were met, and in 1888 the Children's Aid Society committed itself definitely to the work, establishing its Bureau of Information, which, during the past eighteen years, has dealt with the applications of more than 18,000 children, and is receiving about 1,300 annually. This department is now maintained at an annual expense of about $6,000.00; a sum equal to the entire expenditure of the Society twenty years ago, but representing but 13 per cent of the total expenditure to-day.

In 1898 three other children's aid societies established similar departments: the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society in Baltimore, the Brooklyn Children's Aid Society, and the Children's Home and Aid Society of Chicago. In announcing to the public the formation of the new bureau, the Baltimore society invited all other institutions to use it as a registration bureau. It is now investigating the applications of about 350 children annually. The Bureau of Counsel, Relief and Investigation of the Brooklyn society received, last year, applications involving 700 children, and the "Aid Department" of the Chicago society received applications involving 1,600.

PRACTICAL CO-OPERATION.

But now we come to a very practical question: What are the smaller independent societies to do, with no such equipment possible as is possessed by the large agency? I want before closing to give a brief description of one or two ways in which different societies in and near Boston have sought to solve the problem, for they may be suggestive to others.

First as to the day nurseries. Some five years ago, several of the day nurseries entered into an agreement with the Children's Aid Society by which they reported to the Society's Bureau of Information every case in which they refused admission to the nurseries for any cause whatever. Thus they discharged their responsibility toward all who came to them.

Later came the formation of a new admission committee in one of the nurseries. After requesting the Children's Aid Society to do for them all work of investigation and admission, the managers finally adopted this plan suggested by Mr. Birtwell: Besides employing a trained investigator, they formed a committee on admissions, made up of the chairman and one other member of their Board, their matron, a member of the executive staff of the Associated Charities, and one from the Children's Aid Society. Here you have a distinct and very suggestive effort to meet this responsibility on which I have laid such stress. A still further development along this line is the experiment now being made, a joint case committee, representing in similar fashion several nurseries instead of one, and including in its membership representatives of the paid staffs of the Children's Mission, Children's Friend Society and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

Again, a Children's Home in Cambridge has adopted the plan of seeking the advice of the Associated Charities on questions of admission. This is very suggestive of possibilities in other communities.

Other interesting developments may be seen in the reorganization of the Boston Children's Friend Society in 1900, and the Worcester Children's Friend Society in 1903, where, besides changing from the institution to the placing-out method, consultation bureaus were established by means of which questions of admission should be decided and other valuable assistance given

when needed; and a similar instance is that of the Children's Mission, where a trained agent has been for several years employed for this work of admission and advice. In all of these instances the agents had worked with the Boston Children's Aid Society. The Children's Friend Society is receiving applications at the rate of about 600 children per year, and the Children's Mission about 800. It should be understood that we have in Boston a very effective scheme of co-operation in the registration bureau of the Associated Charities, where all the leading agencies are accustomed to inquire for information upon the receipt of each application. Without such facilities it is easy to see what complications might arise, where several independent bureaus are dealing with such a large number of cases.

A FEW CAUTIONS.

Let me add here, in closing, a few cautions.

1. Do not have rules that will set limits to your work. Even general principles you must always hold subject to exception.

2. No application should be considered without inquiry to secure all the information about the case which the co-operative schemes of your community afford.

3. An application to take a child may call for action as far removed as possible from that asked for.

4. It rarely happens that the simple act of taking and caring for a child, even when such action is desirable, is alone adequate to the need.

5. If you take children in an emergency, it is your duty to see them through that emergency. Have no rules that will make your methods so inelastic as to prevent this.

6. When children are taken, relatives should be required to contribute towards their support as far as possible.

We have been taught to believe that two things were necessary in social work, namely: warm sympathy and sound judgment in happy combination. I venture to name a third essential, this professional sense, to which I have already referred; the sense of responsibility, which will give our work wise direction, definite standards and general effectiveness.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY.

This will require of us all, if we wish to be tolerated, progressive, constructive work: the constant measuring up to the

highest standards. The quack, the unprofessional doctor, is no greater menace to the community than the unprofessional, paid charity-worker, and the sooner we cease to tolerate the latter, the better it will be for the community. Now the pity of it is that the community does not yet require of us certain standards of excellence, as it does of the lawyer and physician; but will anyone say that there is less need of it; that the work which Dr. Cabot dignifies by the name of Social Psychology, is of less vital import than that of the lawyer or doctor? We tinker with the affairs, the very lives of people; take a child out of its home, perhaps change the whole plan of life of an entire family; and what about the wisdom of it all? One of our great teachers of the present day has recently said that the beginning of wisdom is the desire for discipline. Now neither sympathy with our client, nor the soundest judgment of the need that we have at the time, will bring us this discipline. What we must have is the willingness of the man of science to subject his methods and his thoughts to the test of comparison with the latest discoveries of the laboratory; the feeling of responsibility which will cause us to pursue our daily work with vigor and courage, but yet with serious concern and humility, keeping our minds receptive to the newest truth and being ever ready for the next forward step.

"WORK OF SOCIETIES FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN ESSENTIAL IN THE PREVENTION OF CRIME."

BY GRAFTON D. CUSHING, PRESIDENT OF BOSTON SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN.

Modern life in all its departments has become very complex. Yet to this very complexity is to be attributed the greater care with which the discoveries of science,—medical and mechanical,—of psychology, of reason have been applied. The complexity of a given subject leads to more simplicity in its subdivisions and therefore to more thoroughness of treatment. What I mean may be illustrated by the remark of the President of a College — characteristic of the age, I think — that soon institutions of learning must be divided into three departments, the administrative,

the scholastic, and the hygienic. Such a division would undoubtedly mean a more particular application of general or special principles to each department; hence a simplification of problems concerning the whole college and a more thorough development of each department along its own lines.

The present age is one of research. We seek for cause and effect — in business, in disease, in politics, in education, in things spiritual and in things temporal; and from this constant agitation we learn to apply a reasonable remedy to the ills from which we suffer. This new movement is felt in our charitable work as well as in any of our other activities. Scientific research has tried to lay bare the causes of crime and poverty and to trace the effect of the application of a given remedy. A great change has thus come over our manner of looking at crime and poverty; a greater change will, ere long, come over our method of dealing with them; nay, has already in part come. According to the old point of view crime was to be ferreted out and punished, punishment being the only deterrent known. According to the modern point of view, crime is still to be punished, but not until the deterrents of sympathy, education, civilizing influences have been applied and failed. Modern charitable science recognizes the individuality of offenders against the law. They are men, women, and children, not all cast in one mould incapable of a generous feeling, unmovable, but human beings in whom the good is mixed with evil, in whom the good can be cultivated and the evil eradicated.

The growth of the probation system and its success wherever applied, bear witness to the reasonableness of dealing with those who have been guilty of crimes, as human beings. If this is true of mature offenders, it is infinitely more true of children and it is with the treatment of children that we are concerned today. The demand for juvenile courts which is fast becoming universal is a healthy sign of the intelligent conviction of our people that education is not merely a question of good schools. We seem now almost ready to apply to the wards of the state the same standard which we would apply in the punishment of our own children for offenses which, owing to their more favorable surroundings rather than to any essential difference in their natures, would never bring them within the jurisdiction of a court of law. In other words we are beginning to realize that children who have,

up to now, been looked upon as hardened criminals are as susceptible to good influences as are the children who have always been protected from the knowledge of evil. Experience has shown that our theories are sound and that a misshapen life may be transplanted into a favorable environment and may become straight and healthy. Theorizing comes first in social science as it must in any other science and a practical application of a theory will almost as surely, though not so rapidly or conclusively, prove or disprove its truth as in chemistry or electricity or in medicine. The result of the experimentations in social science seems to demonstrate clearly that we may safely apply the test of reasonableness and common sense to our social problems as well as to our political or economic ones.

It is a misfortune that Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children have so often been linked to Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, for the procedure in each class of cases ought to be radically different. Where animals are concerned the main object to be attained is the punishment of the offender; although there is incidentally connected the training of the community in habits of kindness towards animals, there is no question of providing for a normal expansion of animal life. The offense is purely physical as far as the sufferer from the offense is concerned. In the case of offenses against children, it is less for the physical than for the moral injuries that we care. We want to prevent the physical suffering of course; but the vital part of the work is to create the conditions under which a human soul can expand and develop into the beauty for which it was created. Our methods in dealing with children have suffered from the connection between animal and children's Societies and the same prosecuting methods have been adopted in both cases. Even where a P. C. C. Society stands alone, we have not yet learned that prosecution of offenders is not the more important part of its functions and the P. C. C. Societies in this country may fairly be classed as public prosecutors. As such they do a great public service, a service which the community needs and which must be done by some private or by some public agency.

The question still remains, "Are we to be content that our P. C. C. Societies shall be well organized, efficient prosecutors, or shall we demand a further development?"

I shall not attempt to discuss the constitution or the methods of the various P. C. C. Societies in this country and abroad. It is not necessary that I should, even if I were competent to do so, for local conditions are so different that different methods must be adopted in each State according to its needs. There are, however, certain things which we all wish to see done by some agency or other, by the State, by private associations, or by a combination of the two, and it is perhaps worth discussing what part our Cruelty Societies should take in this general improvement of conditions. We probably all agree that under certain circumstances children must be taken from their parents and placed in decent homes rather than in institutions; that preventive work must be done both among parents and children; that certain cases of crime, breach of law, or of non-support and neglect of wife and children must be brought to the attention of the courts. There must therefore exist prosecuting agencies, placing out agencies, visiting and relief charitable agencies. Some of these agencies may be public, some quasi-public, some private. They should all be independent and co-operative. Theoretically, I suppose all such work may be the function of the State as much as the care of paupers or the prosecution of ordinary offenders. As a matter of practice, part of this work is often done by the State, but the major part is done by private agencies. It is difficult properly to co-ordinate the activity of private Societies among each other and to make it combine effectively with what the State does. My own belief is that sooner or later the following development will take place. The State will be given general supervision over all private charities. Placing out, probation, visiting will still be done by private initiative, but will be done under the direction and supervision of State Courts or State Boards. The State will thus be able to utilize existing charitable organizations and increase immensely the scope of its influence, while the work of private societies will receive the sanction of the State. In all directions the tendency of our development is to encourage individual initiative while giving the government a proper supervision and the authority to record facts and to complete statistics. We are becoming accustomed to seeing established State and Federal departments and commissions whose purpose is to so regulate private enterprises that the public may be best served.

In Massachusetts, the State takes charge of neglected chil-

dren and places them in families through the State Board of Charity. The court commits the children to the custody of the State Board. The agents of the M. S. P. C. C. and of other kindred organizations investigate cases, and bring the children into court for such action as the court deems wise. These agents, though controlled by a private Society, are practically agents of the State. Agents of other Societies are often virtually probation officers. But the State might well extend its utilization of private agencies. It might well, for instance, in the case of Catholic children, use the vast organization of the Catholic Church and the knowledge of its clergy as to the suitability of Catholic homes. The State might also register the results of the work of private Societies, compile needed statistics, and become the central organizer from which would come the better co-ordination of the many private charitable agencies so that no effort should be wasted.

Whatever may be one's theory as to the way in which eventually the problem may be worked out, there are various actual conditions which must be remedied if the community is to attain its normal development. There seem to be two theories as to the proper sphere of P. C. C. Societies in this remedial work. They may either be thoroughly organized investigating and prosecuting agencies or they may stand ready besides to take part in any movement which will directly or indirectly improve the conditions under which children live. This latter view seems to me by far the more intelligent. There are limits to the work of prosecuting, there is a point where no improvement can be made except in the number of children reached. But when one is prepared to turn one's hand to any work by which a community may be lifted up, the opportunities of development are as infinite as nature itself. Can there be any doubt which is the nobler of the two conceptions?

There does not seem to be any definite rule of action which will apply to all communities and there are perhaps no definite recommendations to make. In every community, a part of the work which must be done is well done, a part insufficiently done or entirely neglected. It is for those directing the policy of our various P. C. C. Societies to determine whether they care to interest themselves in all the questions that touch children or whether they will confine themselves to such as may come under the head of policing and prosecuting. I myself believe that we

should cultivate the theory that nothing which tends to purify and beautify childhood is beyond the scope of our proper activity. We must of course first do well the work with which our Societies are peculiarly connected and then look about us to see what further service we can do the community.

An individual improves himself or his condition by taking every opportunity that comes his way; otherwise he stagnates. Any number of individuals incorporated cannot escape the law of nature that lack of progress means decay. You must grow or die. And it is only by a growth that answers the growing needs of the community that organizations such as ours can hope to live.

THE CO-ORDINATION OF CHILD-HELPING AGENCIES.

BY MORNAY WILLIAMS, PRESIDENT OF THE JUVENILE ASYLUM AND CHILDREN'S VILLAGE, NEW YORK.

I count myself happy to-night in the inspiration not only of the audience but of the theme assigned me. Looking at one side only of the work of helping children, one might be tempted to despair. If you knew, as some of us know in New York City, the tragedies of child life, if there had been carried on your hearts the bitterness of the struggle for existence, the temptations to evil, the depressing influences crushing out the finer feelings and susceptibilities of the child, dulling the intellect, imbruting the spirit, it might almost seem that that English poet of our own day was right, who, recalling the Persian theory of the evil god, describes the force that rules the world as

> "A flame that flies fast and is cruel
> And his own hand heapeth the fuel,
> Dead in the path of him, pity
> And awake and aware of him, fear."

Sometimes as you look at imbruted childhood rendered evil, you can scarcely see the divine. But if you think rightly, the older English Poet, Edmond Spenser, was far more wise than Charles Algernon Swinburne and wrote the English language even more musically. The power that rules the world is one that "Wields the world with never wearying love, supports it from be-

neath, sustains it from above." The history of the modern children's crusade, which is largely parallel with the life of this Conference, is the story of a crusade, not like that of the middle ages, a struggle to recover an empty tomb, but the holy work of guarding the portals of opening life.

It is my part to-night to tell, if I may, how the various agencies which are working in this cause under different banners, with different battle cries, may become one. If we take it aright I think all philanthropy is religious, and the great heresy of philanthropy, like the great heresy of religion, is to cut the root of life. If you have not read it, take up your Stephenson and read in his old Edinburgh, the description of the jangling church bells that drive away, in their call to diverse and warring sects, the thought of the peace that ought to be. Now even in philanthropy we may find the jangling of continued warfare, even among those who ought to be fighting for the same great cause, the child's welfare. The time is past forever, to stand and call each other names and depreciate each other's work; the reformatories against the home finding associations, and the home finding associations against the institutions, and both against the Juvenile Court and the probation officer. The old looking askance on the new and the new decrying the old and saying that it is out of date and there is no place for it. There is place for all work done rightly and well; there is place for none that is done for the sake of the society, the institution, the creed.

The thing that all of us ought to keep in mind is the limitations of our own work. Each child has his own life to live. The case of each one must be judged according to the needs of each, and the particular agency that can best meet the need is the one to be employed. Sometimes the child after arraignment in the Juvenile Court, may be paroled, and come under the care of the probation officer; sometimes it will receive education in an institution or the placing again in the old home or in a new one; sometimes there will be the direct placing out in a new home; but the important thing for each one of us engaged in this great work is to recognize that our particular work is not the whole work and that it is not true that because another does not work in our way, his work is necessarily naught.

The first thing then for which we plead is that we shall each recognize the limitations in our own work and make our-

selves intelligently interested in the possibilities of our fellow's work. It is well that in the evolution of society, state supervision shall extend itself to every form of philanthropy; it is well that the institution, the association for finding homes, the voluntary probation officer as well as the salaried probation officer and the Court itself should be, if not direct agents of the state, at least under direct supervision of state agents, but as yet, at least, the time has not arrived when in our great commonwealths we can afford to do away with the agencies which have been working, whether institutions or home finding associations, or as volunteers for the good of the children.

Now, I have not time this evening to point out the lines of limitation; some of them will occur to you almost of themselves; the child, for instance, who partly by inherited evil (though that is generally a very small element I am thankful to say in juvenile delinquency) still more by bad family example, has become, if not a positive offender, at any rate a probable offender. For such a one it is almost essential that for a time at least the lesson of obedience should be taught, before it is placed where the control will not be sufficiently firm as well as sufficiently kind to teach that elemental lesson. Until that lesson has been learned it will not always be well to give the young child, already old in lessons of evil, more learned than you are in evil thoughts and passions far beyond its age, to give that child to the unsophisticated, though kindly country home. But beyond that there is a limitation to the work of the probation officer for children in the city. While I most heartily endorse what has been said as to what the probation officer may accomplish we must remember that the great element in all education, education in righteousness as well as education in intellect, is companionship, and that the companionship of the best of probation officers for a few hours for a few days in the week, is not enough to overcome the companionship, love and familiarity of the street gang for the street boy, until he has learned the lesson of obedience.

Now, remembering that there is room for all, may I urge that next in importance to doing your own work faithfully and well, is the holding in respect the work of your fellow and the abstention from unfair and unjust criticism. I have been nineteen years connected with this particular form of work. I must speak of myself because I find myself subject with my associates

to a most serious charge. This is the part of my address which I approach with most reluctance. When one's ears are dinned by the shrill accusations of the common scold, it is the part of dignity and of wisdom to be silent; when the papers, that portion of them which give themselves over to sensationalism (and it is not always the journals that are called yellow that are the yellowest), repeat malicious lies and slanders, the same course is the part of wisdom, but when from those who know better proceed strong, trenchant words of condemnation, if the words are not true then it is necessary to make reply. I am reluctant, but yet I am here constrained to make reply to the charge that I find made against me in the very outset of this Conference. The President of the Conference has seen fit to bring against three classes of persons very distinct charges. He said in his address, "I deliberately charge the temperance reformers in this Conference, and there are not so many here as there should be, with complete ignorance as to the reasons for the existence of inebriates. . . . I charge the managers and officers of institutions for the care of children with ignorance of the causes which have led to the orphanage or the neglect of their wards. . . . I charge the hospitals — directors, superintendents and physicians alike — with equal indifference or neglect."*

I hold no brief to defend temperance reform, though I am happy to count myself among the honored number of those who are thus charged. I do not represent the hospitals, but I do represent the institutions for the care of children to-night, and I think myself happy that I am allowed to represent them. I want to say with as much deliberation as the most distinguished author of this most interesting paper, that it is not true that the officers and directors of institutions for the care of children are ignorant of the causes which have led to the orphanage or neglect of their wards. In the more than half century of history of the institution which I represent, we count among the members and those who have been its officers, the names of Peter Cooper, Charles O'Connor, Benjamin F. Butler and Andrew H. Green, not exactly men who were ignorant of the needs of their city or the needs of their wards or of the causes that made them their

* See p. 7. Mr. Devine's charges were general and referred to the acknowledged fact that few of the remedial agencies of philanthropy are sufficiently alive to the causes of the evils they seek to alleviate.—EDITOR.

wards. I speak but the names of the honored dead, but there are others in many other institutions to-day who are making close and careful study of the causes that lead to destitution and delinquency on the part of children. I submit that it is not right that such an accusation should be made against all such. I refer to the incident with regret. I would that the author of the charge were here that I might reply in person; unfortunately, yet to his honor be it spoken, he is not, but I am not thereby relieved from the obligation to reply. This is an illustration of the great need for co-ordination,— that those who work for and are striving toward the same great goal, the reaching out of the hand of help to the child who needs it, should realize that those who work in a different portion of the field and under perhaps a different banner are not therefore necessarily ignorant and out of the way. When shall we learn the lesson, that it is only when we stand together that we can really hope to do effective work? All honor to those who, like Dr. Devine, are giving unstintingly of time and labor and thought to the prevention of evil, all honor to those who are striving to read aright the causes that lead to evil, but let there not be on the lips of any of us the light accusation against our fellows. We are workers together in the great crusade and the only thing that gives us heart against the evils that are about us, the piteous stories that come to us, is the feeling that the forces that are working for righteousness and holiness are stronger than the forces that are working against them. Commercial greed, worse even than political corruption, is working against the child. The glamor and the press of life in the great city are working against the child; the conditions of gregariousness in the great slum districts, as they are called, are working against the child. The three great causes, as I read them, of juvenile delinquency in the city are first, motherlessness, second, overcrowding, and third and mightiest of all, the power and influence of street life, and these powers are mighty enough to contend with. Do not let us contend with one another. I am not here to-night to plead for, or excuse or extenuate any charge against myself. I do not have to go to Rudyard Kipling to learn that, for the good work, as the good workman, "none but the Master shall praise and none but the Master shall blame." The voice of little human praise, or ially little human blame, matters equally little. The work shou.. speak, but O, my friends,

the work is greater than the workman and when we speak against one another we take the heart out of each other; when we criticise, when we condemn, when we strive, when our battle cry, our jangling bell, sounds out and strives to drown the chime of any other bell not tuned to our key, we are not sending up pæans to Heaven, we are drowning human ears with shrill messages of discontent.

My appeal, O that I could put my appeal before you! It is the boy, the girl, who needs help. Let us determine that so far as we can, we will read aright as God gives us to read it, the need; we will stop, if we can by His Grace, the causes that have led to those hollow eyes, that lithe, thin figure, that stimulated activity up to the age of adolescence, becoming after that imbruted and dulled. We will learn the causes if we can, but we will, God helping us, work together to raise that child into the image of Him who made him.

Remembering this, that be our faith what it may, Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant alike, we believe that in every little child there is that mysterious kingdom of heaven which is everywhere could we but enter it, almost nowhere so few there be who find it; that the angel of that little child, that face old in anguish and in evil learning, that has learned the laws of the jungle that you with all your scholarship and research do not know, that the angel of that little face does always behold the face of the Father who is in heaven; and if I could have my client here, as I have seen him, I should not plead in vain my plea to-night, that you and I, my brother, you who challenged me and you who condemned, should be brothers hand in hand to take up the work. Do it; do it as we may; do it as philanthropists if such we are; do it as officers of societies if such we are, do it as judges of courts if such we are; do it how you may but always do it, the work of making childhood purer, happier, nobler, better educated, better trained for future citizenship. I have a most illustrious client. His tiny fingers hold the key of the future. If he is not trained to throw away his inheritance, to barter it for gain, to sell it for the mess of pottage, my client of the street, my child friend shall be the noble, free, happy citizen of a better state in a nobler to-morrow.

JUVENILE PROBATION.*

BY HOMER FOLKS, SECRETARY, STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK; CHAIRMAN, NEW YORK STATE PROBATION COMMISSION, 1905-6.

Happily, it is no longer necessary to present arguments as to the value of probation. The successful work carried on since 1869 in Massachusetts, and the recent phenomenal extension of probation work, dating from the passage of the Illinois Juvenile Court Law in 1899, have produced a strong impression throughout the country that probation is a very important factor in dealing with delinquent and neglected children, and that it has come to stay.

Even a slight acquaintance, however, with the details of probation work in various localities, shows that the term signifies very different things in different cities, that the methods of probation are almost as many as the courts which use it. Very much remains to be done before we have worked out anything like a satisfactory plan for administering probation work, for outlining the duties of probation officers, securing special training for the work, holding probation officers to the faithful and efficient performance of their duties, discovering the limitations of the system, and making probation a vital factor in the conduct of those placed under its care. We will, therefore, discuss briefly in this paper two things, — first, what are the essential factors of probation, and, second, probation as an administrative problem.

THE ESSENTIAL FACTORS OF PROBATION.

Probation has to do with moral delinquency. As applied to neglected children it is, in effect, an effort to reach the parents, and to affect, for good, their attitude toward their children. It implies, in substance, a conviction. If it be not a conviction in technical terms, it implies a finding on the part of the judge that the child is in need of oversight because his morals are in danger. Probation implies, besides a finding of moral delinquency, a suspension of sentence, either in terms or by a postponement of more drastic measures. Probation does not necessarily involve the investigation of the circumstances of the case by a probation officer. In localities in which there is no other existing agency

* Discussions on Probation, p. 576.

for the purpose it is undoubtedly the case that the probation officer is best fitted to perform this service, and to represent the interests of the child in court, but it is quite possible for all of that work to be done by other agencies and still to have an effective probation system, the work of the probation officer not beginning until after the court has reached its findings.

The fact that the child has been brought into court is, in itself, a valuable factor, both as regards the child and the parents. The proceedings of the court, and especially the admonition of the judge, are important facts in the probation system. The continuing possibility of further proceedings and of more drastic measures, without any further conviction for a new offence, is still more important. Most important of all, however, is the probation officer. In fact, it is not too much to say that all the factors previously mentioned simply provide favorable conditions under which the probation officer may do effective work. It is the personal influence of the probation officer, going into the child's home, studying the surroundings and influences that are shaping the child's career, discovering the processes which have been exercising an unwholesome influence, and, so far as possible, remedying these conditions, — this is the very essence of the probation system. The friendly side of the probation officer's work is its important side. His duty is by no means simply that of securing information for the court as to the child's conduct, but that of securing reformation. He is not to be a dispassionate observer but an active influence. Without such work on the part of probation officers, without probation officers qualified to conduct such work and to carry it on consistently and without intermission, the court is practically helpless.

It is but natural, perhaps, that in some cases the court should overestimate the value of those factors in probation with which it has most immediate concern and most direct knowledge, — the court proceedings, the suspended sentence, and the admonition and counsel bestowed by the judge. We would not omit any of these things, but it is, perhaps, time to say plainly that these things alone are not probation. It is easy to overestimate the effectiveness of the court proceedings, and even the fatherly admonitions of the judge. In fact, the impression is produced upon the minds of some, who have observed the proceedings of juvenile courts, that the admonition of the judge, while taken seriously by

him, is not regarded so seriously by any of the other parties in interest. If the idea goes into circulation in the community that being placed on probation is a "soft snap," that you can do what you like without being found out, and that this suspended sentence is in fact an unconditional discharge, the warnings and admonitions of the court will not carry far beyond the doors of the court room.

Probation is not simply an act of clemency on the part of the judge. It is not primarily a personal relation between the judge and the probationer, though these things are desirable features of probation. The probation system is really a new way of treating offenders. It provides a new kind of reformatory, without walls and without much of coercion, but nevertheless seeking to bring to bear upon each child the influences which will make for his betterment, and seeking to provide for him, so far as possible in his own home, opportunities and facilities for education and discipline, which we have heretofore provided only in an institution.

It is a truism, that although any offender, child or adult, is brought into court for some particular act, the community is really dealing with him, not so much because of this particular act, but because of the long train of influences and factors, personal and social, which have exercised an unfavorable influence upon him. The institutional method of dealing with offenders recognizes only the individual element in wrong doing. It removes the individual from his surroundings in order that it may concentrate upon him uplifting influences and opportunities, believing that, when he is released, he, himself, will be so changed that he will resist the tendencies in his surroundings which at an earlier date led him astray. The probation system, with, it seems to me, a truer estimate of all the circumstances, takes into account both the individual and his surroundings, regards his offence as the joint product of his individuality and his environment, and seeks to influence both factors so that they shall work together for good and not for evil. The work of the probation officers must, therefore, begin, if it does not begin earlier, the very moment the child leaves the court. It must utilize to the fullest degree whatever advantages there are in the shock caused by apprehension of the child, by the court proceedings and the judge's counsel. It must, by force of personal influence, and in whatever ways may be possible, build up a strong influence in the home of the child.

We are told that no two children and no two families being alike, probation work cannot be and must not be organized, and that if organized it would lose all of its spirit and value. Is that the case? On the contrary, it seems to me that the fact that probation work must be carried on in the homes of a community, out from under the eyes of the judge and the court, the fact that no hard and fast rules can be laid down for the treatment of individual cases, makes it all the more necessary that an adequate and effective plan for securing probation officers, for instructing them in their duties, for holding them responsible for the proper performance of their duties, should be organized.

Probation work is not after all so very different from several other things that we are quite familiar with. We used to think we could only send out a gentleman to place out children and tell him to do the best he could. Now, we all know the results of placing out children on that sort of plan and method, we know the progress that has been made in the last two or three decades. All this has grown step by step with the development of a logical, practical, careful plan, whereby the selection of homes has been carefully and systematically done and a plan devised for visiting the children and keeping track of them.

Probation work is not unlike friendly visiting. It is not unlike the work of the district committee of the charity organization society. But who would suggest there must be no well-knit scheme for the oversight of the work of the agents of the charity organization society. Let us speak frankly. We all know perfectly well that it is just the kind of work that, without the most careful oversight, is liable, nay, is sure to be superficial and ineffective; that our own minds are so constituted that it is the easiest thing in the world for us to believe that because we have the names of certain families before us and because we plan to visit them from time to time, we are doing something when we are really doing nothing effective.

We must have a well-knit plan for the selection of our probation officers, for instructing them in their duties, for holding them responsible, for knowing what they really do, for interviewing them in regard to their work from time to time, and for bringing actual results, not the intended or supposed results, but the actual results to a knowledge of the court and community.

How shall we work by organization? That brings me to a

point on which I speak with some hesitancy, because the conclusion I have reached upon it is wholly different from that I expected to reach when I began to study the subject. In the first place it becomes painfully evident to any one who attends the sessions of the juvenile court in a large city that it is physically impossible for the presiding judge himself to discharge the duties of his position and at the same time be the superintendent of a large force of probation officers. There are not enough hours in the day. There is not enough strength in any one person to discharge these two obligations. There must be built up then a probation system, for the direction, organization and control of the probation work done in the court.

But further than that, and this, I think, lies at the bottom of the question, I am led to believe that the oversight and direction of the work of probation officers from day to day and from week to week, perfecting their plans, their methods and holding them to their duty is not necessarily, is not preferably a judicial but is an executive function, just as much so as the administration of the reformatory institutions to which those same children might and recently would have been committed. The judicial frame of mind is that of taking up case by case, eliminating all other considerations and all other facts, and centering the attention for the time upon the law and the facts in that one individual case, then to pass on to another, and to another and to another. Doesn't that tend to build up a machine — I don't mean a political machine but an administrative machine? It is one and one and one and one. In the consideration of each of these it is inherently important that all the others should be left aside. Now then, the work of the probation officer is inherently and essentially that of keeping all of these under his care and in his mind continually. It is that of perfecting, step by step, an organized plan by which he knows all the time what is going on about all of these children.

The judge has no deputy. The court is not organized in this way, it has no administrative department. The actual administration of probation work is not necessarily, and in great cities to my mind is not preferably, a part of the work of the judiciary, Now what is essential? We have before us in any one of our large cities where the probation system is in effect, several hundreds of children who we have decided are in need of oversight, care, assistance, direction and whatever we can do for them.

If we were dealing with them by any other plan what would we have? We would have, in the first place, a chief executive officer, some one person responsible for directing all the assistants and agents and subordinates and holding them to their responsibilities and making sure that they perform their duties. In a reformatory there would be a superintendent; in a charity organization society, a general secretary; some one person in whom is placed continual responsibility for all that is done. And then, secondly, we would have a board of directors, by whatever name they may be known, a group of citizens willing to give their names and their reputations to probation work in that locality, willing to stand for it and to secure funds for its maintenance, to share in the responsibility for its successful administration. In some fashion we must have a chief executive officer and in some fashion we must have persons to discharge the essential duties of a board of directors.

I have realized since coming to this conference as I did not before, the extent to which we have these committees, juvenile court committee, probation committee in nearly all of our cities. We have a committee, which unofficially and without legal sanction, has performed substantially those duties of selecting probation officers and directing their work, or securing this effect and all standing sponsor for it. Now, I think we shall need to go a step further and make that a recognized part of the machinery of government for the reformation of the juvenile offenders and for improving the conditions of neglected children placed on probation. The committee may be appointed by the judiciary, if circumstances are such that there is some one judge or one court clearly indicated as being the proper court for the appointment of such a board. But if the probation work is scattered through a number of courts in the city, then it seems to me entirely proper and desirable that that board should be appointed by the chief executive officer of the city, viz., the mayor.

Two or three allusions were made at our session a few nights ago about a society in New York City known as the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and it appeared that in the bill for the Children's Bureau and in the bill for the regulation of news boys, and various other efforts that had been made for bettering the condition of needy children of the city and the State of New York and of the United States, this particular

society had found that its work would be seriously interfered with if these measures were carried through. I regret to see precisely the same situation arise in the adoption of legislation in the state of New York on the lines I have indicated, and at our last session of the Legislature, a bill carrying into effect some of the suggestions I have just made being introduced, was very violently and persistently opposed by that organization on the ground that while they themselves did not do any probation work and took no part in probation, nevertheless, it would be impossible for them to carry on their work successfully and adequately if any such plan as this were organized. And furthermore, that probation itself was so personal, so individual and so human that under no circumstances could it be organized. That has delayed the building up of probation in the state of New York and attacked the very foundation of the system. Let us in the development of this splendid work, destined to be of such far reaching results and value, be sure that we lay the foundations well. Let us face frankly the fact that it is not a panacea for all the ills of childhood, that it must be carefully thought out, well put together, carefully administered, and that its value, its actual effects will be determined and proportioned by the extent to which we give it, not merely our enthusiasm, our spirit, but all the best study of which we are capable.

THE JUVENILE COURT; THE JUDGE AND THE PROBATION OFFICER.

BY JULIAN W. MACK, JUDGE OF THE JUVENILE COURT, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

In our Juvenile Court work in Chicago we are still far from realizing our ideals. We are very far behind everywhere in this country, in really carrying through the purposes of the Juvenile Court. We are only at the beginning of the whole problem. It is quite natural that this should be so because the Juvenile Court is but seven years old. What we are aiming to do in Chicago may be helpful. Let me preface that by one word, in accordance with Mr. Folks' suggestion, and that would be a word to the judges. There is no one to whom I should

yield in my admiration for all that Judge Lindsey has done and is doing. There is only one danger in his example. He is doing his work so wonderfully that there is a tendency to copy it. Now, Judge Lindsey cannot be imitated, because his work depends upon his personality. Judge Lindsey's work, as a judge, is about the same as the work of the most of us as judges. His real greatness is his work as his own chief probation officer. Now, if a judge happens to be fitted by nature to be the chief probation officer in his community, and if his community is of a size that he can combine the work of judge and chief probation officer, that community is fortunate. But the lines of our work should not be laid out on the basis that we are going to find that unique personality in any of our communities. The lines of our work for permanency, should be laid out upon the theory that a man with judicial and legal training, although he may be fitted fully by experience and study of philanthropy to be a juvenile court judge, is not likely to be fitted to be his own chief probation officer, and, therefore, I say, with Mr. Folks, that the two lines of work ought to be clearly separated in the law.

Now, in Chicago, the judge of the juvenile court knows at least this much, that he is not in the slightest degree fitted to do the probation work that Judge Lindsey can do so successfully. Therefore, as well as for the reason that it would be impossible in a large city to do it, he makes not the slightest attempt to do it. The probation work is separated from the juvenile court work and is in a measure organized along the lines that Mr. Folks recommends in that magnificent report of his commission and in his admirable paper this morning. We have a non-official body, a sort of commission or juvenile court committee. Up to last July that committee raised funds, selected the probation officers, and kept supervision over them. Since last July a number of probation officers are paid by the county. All have been appointed under civil service rules as the best practical method of selecting proper officers. The committee, however, still supplements the paid county officials by giving us additional paid probation officers and exercises full influence over their own officers and quite a large influence over the others. Now that we have come to the county paid probation officers, this committee ought to be con-

verted, as Mr. Folks says, into an official probation commission that will supervise the work. Our work is organization work. We stand on the fundamental principle that the probation officer is an individual and that each child is to be dealt with as an individual but we also recognize that that does not mean that there are to be no rules, no regulations, no concerted action, no principles governing the work. We recognize that the individuality of the probation officer, the individuality of the child and the individuality of each of the members of the family are going to influence the work that the probation officer does, but there must be guiding principles, and above all there must be reports and there must be supervision.

I am often asked, "What is this new thing that is represented by the Juvenile Court? Has not the state always regarded it as part of its function to take charge of the neglected, the dependent young ones within its borders; is there anything really new about it?" In Illinois and many other states, the exercise of the state's jurisdiction over dependent children, so far as it comes to the Court, is vested in the Juvenile Court, although that is not so everywhere. So far as it has to do with the dependent child, there is absolutely nothing new about the Juvenile Court law. The State, theoretically, always cared for the dependent child and practically, in a measure did so, unless, as was usual, private charity intervened. Of course where the Juvenile Court exercises jurisdiction over the dependent child it endeavors to do so according to the most intelligent principles. When a child without fault of its own, must be taken from its own home, either because it is an orphan or because of some of the other vicissitudes of life coming to its family, or because the parents are depraved through drink or vice, we believe that that child should be placed in another home. We believe, in other words, that every child ought to have individualized life and care. But this does not make the new element that the Juvenile Court legislation has brought into our jurisprudence. It is in dealing with the delinquent child. I am told in New York, or in Pennsylvania, I have forgotten which, they talk about delinquency in the first degree and delinquency in the second degree, meaning by delinquency in the second degree, the child delinquent because the parents are. I don't use the words "delinquent child" in that sense; I use them in the sense that the child has done

something wrong. It is in the treatment of the delinquent child that a new element has come into our jurisprudence. Up to the time of the Juvenile Court laws there was no distinction between the child and the adult. When the child reached the age of criminal responsibility, whether that was seven, or ten, or twelve (different in different states) and broke the law, the child was taken just as an adult was taken, thrown into jail, indicted by the grand jury, tried by the petit jury, convicted and sentenced for some definite term. In the last hundred years there have been many mitigating influences in our criminal jurisprudence. We have separated the child after conviction, from the adult. We have provided reformatories instead of penitentiaries in which, although the primary principle remains that for wrong doing there must be expiation, nevertheless, there comes in, as a subsidiary and incidental principle, the idea that while we are punishing we must to some extent educate and reform. Then in our jurisprudence has come that great principle of the indeterminate sentence, which, when our institutions are properly administered and the question of when the release shall be made is determined by experts, will be a great saving force in human society. But there remained the general conception that the child was to be punished and in very many places the child was not separated from the adult, but on arrest was put into the police station or the jail and mingled with vagrants and harlots. Saved to society? No; condemned to criminality by this procedure! And what was to change all this?

Starting in Illinois in 1899 we brought in the principle that even though the child may have done that which if done by an adult would be a violation of the law of the state, still the state, as the greater parent of all of the children within its border, must deal with that child as the wise, the kind, the just but the merciful parent would deal with his own child, must abandon the idea that for every petty offense the great authority of the state must be vindicated, and its punishment visited upon the minor. In lieu of that the principle came in that the state, acting as the great parent, would take the child in, just as it took the helpless, neglected and dependent child, would deal with that child in such a manner that the evil tendencies which produced the particular act might be eradicated, that the child might be trained and educated into good citizenship, that the latent good which is in

every human being might be developed and brought out and the evil that is in some, perhaps all, of us might be suppressed and destroyed. And how was this work to be accomplished? That is merely a question of methods, the principle is there, the results are going to depend upon the administration; they are going to depend first of all upon the Court. Unless the Judge be really interested in philanthropy, you might as well give up the Juvenile Court; unless he realizes that the problem before him is totally different from the problem either in the civil or the criminal court, that the question which he has to determine is not, has the child done a certain thing and should a certain thing be done to the child because of its act, but it is purely and simply what can we do to save and redeem this child; he might as well abandon his position.

But even though the Judge have the proper conception of the function of the Juvenile Court, he must gain a thorough experience in order to be able to deal with the problem. We, in this great body, know the need of trained workers for all our philanthropic work and what work is more philanthropic than that of determining the entire future of these little human beings? It takes study and thought and patience and above all experience, and therefore I urge upon all of you in your respective communities to endeavor to get one, at least, of your judges who will be willing to make what, at first blush, will seem to him to be a sacrifice from his intellectual pursuits, to take the Juvenile Court and to keep it at least for a year or two. To change every month and in some communities every week or every three months is completely detrimental to the work of the Court.

There is a tendency to bring too many into the court. There is a tendency to forget that we were boys and girls, that we played on the streets and accidentally or otherwise broke a neighbor's window and that we perhaps did, once in a long time, swipe an apple from the Italian fruitstand. Don't let's forget that boys will be boys and don't let's term them delinquents because of mere mischief. I don't say that they should be allowed to continue on that way, but the wise probation officer who realizes that her duty is not merely towards certain individuals placed under her care but to all the children of her district, can by her own or his own personal influence and talks with the children

keep them out of court and do infinitely more good to them than if they were brought into court.

When the children are brought before the court the question arises, what shall be done. I hear it stated every once in a while, particularly by friends of institutions, "This is a terrible situation, the Judge won't send a child to the institution; why, he has even paroled them twice or even three or four times." As long as children are brought into the court not through the probation officers but through private individuals for mere petty offenses, don't let's condemn the judge on the figures you see that some children have been put on probation three and four times. Remember always that there are no fixed rules that should govern us in dealing with children; remember always that the Juvenile Court deals with each child as a distinct individual, examining into its entire past, not as a criminal court does, finding out whether this particular offense was committed, but going way beyond that, entirely contrary to the rules of evidence regarding criminal proceedings, finding out what the child has done before and what the child is, finding out the child's physical and mental condition, the environments, the home surroundings, and then determining, not what is the best thing to do for children, but simply and solely, what is the best thing to do for little John Brown. Now, John Brown may have done such things, and may have such a home, that even though he has been brought into court three or four times, he ought not to be taken away from it; and John Smith may have done such things, and may have such a home, that it would be a crime, even the first time he is brought into court, to send him back to the home, or to put him under probation. Some children need institutional care; we must have our institutions for them; some children would be crushed by institutional care and don't need it even though at times it may seem that they do.

Let's give our probation system the fullest possible chance; let's build it up and make it strong and put it under proper supervision. Probation work ought not to depend for its efficacy upon the personality of the Judge. I think that the report of Homer Folks, as chairman of the probation commission of New York, ought to be adopted, at least so far as it relates to the probation work among children; there ought to be an administrative body, separate from the Judge who represents the

judicial power of the state, representing the administrative part of the state's function, under which the entire probation work ought to be placed. We ought to have officially, what we have in Chicago unofficially, a body of men and women who are really put in charge of the entire probation system to unify it and direct it and oversee it and to whom in a measure the probation officers may be made responsible, who can judge whether they are really doing their work well or not, and whether they are fit or whether they ought to be discharged. In all of our large cities at least, we ought to have paid probation officers, appointed, under civil service rules or otherwise, as court officers; they ought to devote their lives to the work; they ought to be trained experts in the field of philanthropy and sociology.

It is our experience and I believe the experience everywhere, that we cannot get enough trained workers, paid by the public, or by private charities, to do the work thoroughly. Probation is the substitute for the institution. If the child is put in the institution it is under constant care; if the child is put on probation, if it has done those things which indicate that it needs direction, care, instruction, help, it ought to be under fairly continuous observation, more than observation, — help, guidance, instruction. The probation work as it exists in some places, consisting merely of looking after the child and having the child report to some official, who really does not know the family, amounts to nothing. The probation officer must know the child, must get right down into the soul life of the child, must know the family and must make that family feel and believe that it is not the power and the authority of the state trying to dictate and compel, but it is the loving care of the state trying to guide, educate and develop that is brought in to help the parent.

The paid probation officer in our large cities having one to two hundred children under his charge, cannot possibly know the child and the family. It is no wonder that the friends of institutional care cry out against probation. The friends of probational care must see to it that it means something and that it is not mere idle talk. I know of but one way in which probation work can be real, and that is for the paid officer to draw to her or to him, the volunteer forces of the community; to find for every child that has been placed under her care, some good

man or woman who knows what life is, who has made a success of it himself, who can be a guide, a leader, an example to the boy or girl, and induce that man or woman to take an individual interest in the individual child. I do not mean volunteer work extending over a dozen families, I mean one good man or woman for each family in which we have a delinquent child, one who will take the child to himself as a friend, who will be a guide, a leader, and an instructor, who will get him work when he is out of work, who will talk with his teacher about him, take him into his own home and not fear that his own boys and girls are going to be contaminated, who will take him to the theatre, to the baseball game, who will be a real man or woman, helping the other as one of God's creatures.

We believe thoroughly in securing the co-operation of the friendly visitor. We realize that the friendly visitor must not be an emotional woman going in with all heart and no head, nor a man of the same kind. We realize the danger in the acceptance of indiscriminate offers and this is one of the problems of elimination we are now trying to solve. Each of the paid officers devoting her life or his life to this work is in charge of a geographical district. The relation the friendly visitors in their districts bear to the paid expert probation officer of each district is the same as that of the officers to the head probation officer. Each of them reports regularly on the work. They come together in bi-weekly or monthly conferences to consider and discuss their actions and to study the lines on which their work ought to be done. And so, too, our regular paid probation officers come together in bi-weekly or monthly conference, not merely to discuss probation work generally but individual cases, too, and listen to lectures on the entire philanthropic problem as it bears on their work, and to discuss, as we do in these national conferences, the problems that are before them.

All of this work in the end is only palliative, — the entire Juvenile Court work. It is true that by taking the child, even after he has committed some offense, we are preventing him, at least we hope we are preventing him, from becoming a criminal, and in that way we are doing preventive work. But as Mr. Devine says in that admirable address of his, preventive philanthropy means nothing unless we get down to the underlying social

problems. Let's get to work altogether and see to it that in those congested districts of our large cities sunshine and air are brought in, that we have the open places, the small parks, that we have the playgrounds in which the boys and girls can have their games and not come in contact with the police. Let's have our vacation schools and our free evening lectures; let's see to it that after the school hours the school grounds are not closed but are utilized for the playground of the neighborhood; and above all let's strengthen these public schools, upon which the future of the country depends. Don't let's have to say that a child must be a dependent or a delinquent in order to get a thorough education. Let's have the manual training, not only in the seventh and eighth grades, but in the first, second and third grades so that those little, nervous children who cannot sit at their books and at their desks all day long, may have some outlet for their nervous energy and not be driven into delinquencies by it. Let's bring into every neighborhood social gatherings in which the boys and the girls may come together under decent auspices; let's have the game and the dance and the art and the music; let's save these children instead of driving them into the hells of pleasure that they necessarily seek, away from the miserable homes in which they are condemned to live. It is only by bringing in the good that we can eradicate the bad; it is only by these great preventive measures that a really lasting good will be done; and that we may not merely correct the delinquents of our own time, but that we may stop delinquency among the children of the future.

WORK OF PROBATION OFFICER PRELIMINARY TO THE TRIAL.

BY MRS ANNIE RAMSEY, PROBATION OFFICER, PHILADELPHIA.

Juvenile Court Methods and legal proceedings vary somewhat, not only in different states, but in different counties in the same state. Any attempt of mine, therefore, to describe the technicalities in the Juvenile Court, must be confined to the work as we do it in this one County of Philadelphia. The essentials are, however, fundamentally the same wherever English Law obtains, as it does in all our states except the few which still feel the old Spanish or French influences.

Under English methods of procedure, there is always the lower Court in which the accusation is first heard. In serious cases this Court has merely the power to decide whether the evidence is sufficient to warrant a further hearing in a higher tribunal with its judge and its jury. Whatever may be the name of this lower Court, Magistrate, Alderman, Justice of the Peace, or Squire, it is here at the starting place, that our probation officer should first meet her child. Our conviction on this subject is so strong that we have endeavored for four years and a half to have present, at the first hearing of each case, a probation officer whose duty it has been to talk with the child, in this, his hour of despair or defiance, to hear the evidence against him, to meet the parents and to arouse that friendly feeling and confidence which is soon to play so important a part in their mutual relations. This attendance at the Magistrate's hearing, clears the atmosphere quickly. The testimony makes its own impression, and the child's version of the affair, given before there has been time to think of collusion or plot, needs less sifting and verification and often gives a clue to his character and disposition. Besides this, the manner and personality of the prosecutor, sometimes gives to a trained probation officer a fair understanding of the cause, or the animus (if such there be) of the whole case. In a large city such as ours, the probation officer, by dignity, tact, and discretion winning the respect and confidence of the magistrate, the police lieutenant and officers of her district, is able to work with, not against, the most pow-

erful factor of city government. In Philadelphia the station houses send to each probation officer a notification of the arrest of any child living in her district. This notice is delivered to her in time to allow her attendance at the hearing at seven A. M.

IN DETENTION.

Should the Magistrate decide to hold a case for the Juvenile Court, unless bail is at once entered the child is sent to the House of Detention, where, quite guarded from criminal associations, he awaits his trial in clean and decent surroundings, and where, quite unknown to him, he is closely watched by the probation officer stationed there, as well as by his own particular officer who sees him frequently. Here, too, he is examined by a physician who pays special attention to those promoters of truancy and vagrancy, adenoid growths and defective eye-sight. A school for the boys awaiting trial has been established by the Board of Education in our temporary House of Detention, and the children do some regular class work every day. Often, a probation officer who feels that the child she meets in the Station House needs such study and care, asks the magistrate to hold the case for court, even if he might otherwise discharge it, for we are coming more and more to feel that an ounce of prevention is worth a ton of reform and when a child is evidently drifting, the help that can be given him through the study of his nature and the examination of the conditions that produce him is so great as to outweigh the dread of making for him a court record. When the Juvenile Court is fully understood and comes into its own, a child's court record will be only a human document, and the guilt of the guiltiest child will be the shame of the community and not of the child.

THE INVESTIGATION.

The officer's golden opportunity for her study of the family is while the child is in custody. She can guage the parental relation quite accurately in noticing how the parents treat the whole subject of Johnny's arrest, how often they visit him, whether there is more sorrow or indignation over the event, whether the father or the mother is disposed to shield Johnny, and whether the family as a whole can be depended upon to

help him, be he in or out of confinement. The investigation of the family conditions must be complete and thorough. No point is too small to be noticed and sometimes a casual sentence leads to a knowledge of the true inwardness of things. Moreover, it sometimes happens that at the trial, a fact stated lightly by the family may strike the Judge as the crux of the whole situation and bitter would be the mortification of the probation officer had she no knowledge of the fact. As an instance of this, I remember a boy arrested for stealing from a car. At the trial the police officer stated that he was with a gang of boys and that he himself had seen them all opening the car at 12 o'clock, April 16. He recognized this particular lad and arrested him on a warrant. The boy was not too much scared to insist that on April 16, he was at work all day long. The probation officer had placed so little confidence in this statement that she had not gone to his employer. She was sent by the Judge to the working place there to have the whole story confirmed. I leave you to imagine her feelings at having neglected so obvious a clue.

The investigation should cover the whole field of the family relations, not only to its own members but to the outside world, the school, the church, the workshop, the street. And it can never be entirely successful until in the circle of the family and its friends some one is found who is willing to help the boy if only in so much as telling the truth about him. Certainly no investigation may be considered successful unless the friendship of the family has been gained. The probation officer goes with all the authority of the Court back of her. She is perhaps the most powerful agent that has ever entered that home, but she should begin on the simple basis of friendliness and sympathy and just so long as she meets any genuine response she should keep this basis for her work. How is she going to ask the Court to give her a child on probation if she has told the public the family shame and dragged forth the skeleton so carefully hid. Will it ever be possible for her to again enter the home as a friend? Or, even if she decides to recommend a change of environment for the child, sending him to a private home, an institution or training school, the greater part of her work is done if in earnest friendliness she has succeeded in getting the parents to see the wisdom of the separation and join with her in the

request for it. Of course no one stops at mere investigation. Of what use is it to offer to the busy Judge a picture of the child's surroundings which will merely make more bewildering the question of "what shall I do with him?" There are not many Judge Lindseys, but most Judges have a deep sense of their responsibility when it comes to dealing with a child's life and future. Almost every Court welcomes a sensible practical suggestion, therefore the investigation must end in a plan if it is to prove its greatest value.

THE PLAN.

It is to be hoped that sufficient time shall be given for both investigation and plan, and this, I think, can hardly be the case where the Court is held daily. There must be thoroughness and co-operation in the study of the child and its conditions. Medical experts should be called in to decide whether adenoids exist sufficiently to cause the dulness which makes school so irksome and truancy so tempting. Eyes and muscular development must be examined in school and working children. In a number of cases simple operations like circumcision will alter the physical conditions and the habits, and the curative treatment is worth trying in every case of doubt. But a decision cannot be reached in a hurry. It is therefore my opinion that Court once a week is often enough, and that with freedom from detention, by bail, made easy, or with cases heard on Magistrates returns, and not held for the slow processes of the grand jury, the probation officer, with Court once a week, needs six days in her week for her investigation and her probation work, and the child is helped rather than injured by the delay.

The plan to be presented to the Judge is one so sure to be momentous in its results that no one man or woman should be responsible for it. We, in Philadelphia, have a method which seems to secure approval wherever it is known, which preceded and nearly meets the plan suggested in the report of the New York Commission on Probation. To understand it fully it is necessary to state that the ladies who first started the work in Philadelphia have been organized into a Juvenile Court and Probation Association. Working members from this Association, the whole corps of probation officers, and very frequently the District Attorney, meet in consultation each week, 48 hours before

the Court. This group of people takes up the cases to be heard and no child is sent in to the Court whose future has not been most carefully considered. The plan offered to the Judge is the joint product of many heads and hearts. Every avenue of help has been suggested and past experiences of boys and girls, helped or harmed by certain measures, are held in remembrance.

But the chief preparation for the trial consists in the choosing and selecting of the probation officer, and in the education of public opinion.

WORK OF THE PROBATION OFFICER IN COURT.

BY MISS LUCY FRIDAY, PROBATION OFFICER OF THE BALTIMORE JUVENILE COURT.

Among the various lines of work taken up by the probation officer let us first consider what may be called the legal side. This has several different branches, and one of the most important is the giving of information in regard to cases under trial. These may be new cases, which the probation officer has been asked to investigate, or he may be called upon to give the past record of children who have previously been before the court.

Another branch of this side of the work is the reporting of cases on probation. It sometimes happens that a boy who is on probation fails to respond to the efforts of the probation officer in his behalf. He remains indifferent, manifests no disposition to improve, and even violates his parole by some serious misdemeanor. The probation officer uses every means in his power to rouse the ambition of such a boy, and to stimulate him to start in the right direction, but if, after a fair trial ,he meets no response, he brings the boy before the judge for a further hearing.

When the period of probation has expired, the probation officer appears with his charge before the judge and gives a report of the progress of the case during the parole. If there is need of further constructive work in the home, or if the child is weak and needs a little longer the prop of a friendly arm, or if his conduct, while on probation, has not been satisfactory, the probation officer recommends an extension of the time, otherwise, a release is asked for.

A large proportion of the children and their parents continue for months, and in some cases even for years, to come to the probation officer to ask counsel and advice, and to make friendly visits.

Another aspect of the legal side of the work is taking charge of new cases. Adjoining the main court room are two smaller consulting rooms. When a child is paroled, the probation officer to whom the judge has assigned the case takes him and his parents into one of these rooms. There, in a quiet interview, he tries to learn something of the previous history and the general conditions of the family, to explain to them the meaning of the parole, and to impress deeply on their minds that "not punishment, but a friend," is the object of the court in taking the child as its ward. Much depends on the tact with which these interviews are conducted.

There is another branch of the legal work, most important, but not yet regarded as coming definitely within the scope of the juvenile court work, that is to investigate the conditions of the home, and to report whether it is a proper place for the child in case he should be released. Such an investigation is clearly a most necessary precaution, but whether it is better for the institution, to make it, and also to supervise its wards after their release, or for the court to do it, is a question about which there is considerable difference of opinion.

Another part of the probation officer's work in the court room may be called the advisory division. This is more comprehensive and varied than the legal branch. It demands experience, broad sympathy, ability to comprehend a situation as a whole as well as to understand details, an open mind and unprejudiced judgment.

Fathers, whose little ones have become motherless, and widows who must become bread-winners for their helpless children, come to ask us if we cannot help them make some plan by which they can keep their families together, or to make application to have their children placed in institutions. Young men and women who have been left orphans come and say: "What shall we do with our younger brothers and sisters? Can you not help us to care for and control them?"

The requests for counsel and advice indicate the wide scope

of this part of the work, and the splendid opportunity it offers for helpfulness and for the spread of right principles.

The interviews with the children, when they come to the court to report, constitute another important branch of the work, and occupy a large portion of the probation officer's time in the court room. He sees only one child at a time, and his aim is to make the interview of such a nature that it shall not seem to the child perfunctory, but a friendly chat, in which he is interested and from which he derives help and encouragement.

The Juvenile Court of Baltimore has started a library for the use of its wards. The management of the library does not occupy much of the probation officer's time, but it is an important feature of the work. In addition to the opportunity it offers for arousing an interest in books and for guiding the taste of young readers, it affords a medium through which the probation officer becomes acquainted with the child. A talk about a book often reveals more of a child's real nature and interests than could be discovered in any other way. It frequently happens that children continue to use the library long after their term of probation has expired, and the books thus become a means of keeping in touch with cases when they are no longer under parole.

The management of a miniature employment bureau, the entertaining of visitors, acting as interpreter, attending to correspondence, and writing up the records of the cases on probation are other features of the work, which, however, do not need detailed treatment and explanation.

THE DELINQUENT GIRL.

BY MISS VIDA HUNT FRANCIS, MEMBER OF BOARD OF MANAGERS OF HOUSE OF REFUGE FOR GIRLS, PHILADELPHIA.

The problem of the delinquent child, as distinct from that of the dependent or neglected child, has been so often threshed out, that I merely want to call your attention to the fact that a child is not legally delinquent until it has been tried in Court, and proven guilty of a crime or misdemeanor which in an adult would be punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both. Such offenses are broadly divided into two classes:

I. Offenses against property.

II. Offenses against the person.

Because we are living in the twentieth century, and because I am addressing an audience who have made child-study a science, I say nothing of the Court before which these children are to be tried, or the conditions under which they are taken there. I assume, of course, that from the moment of their arrest, they have been cared for in a Detention Home, by men and women who are broad in their love and sympathy for the erring child, — that they have been taken before a Judge in the Juvenile Court whose broad learning has been deepened by the study of childhood, historically, racially, economically, and biologically, and whose calm judgment of the larger issues at stake has been attuned to the individual child by his loving sympathy and keen insight. All this I assume because this is the ideal toward which we are all striving and which in many communities has already been largely realized, here, in our own city, through that band of women who, led by Mrs. Schoff, have accomplished so much for our children.

The children before the Juvenile Court are of many kinds, and the scope of this paper does not include those absolutely dependent, neglected, or fully defective, because they, while often accused of misdemeanors, are not considered responsible for them, and so, not being convicted, are not delinquent. Neither does it include the child of tender years — whom, however grave the misdemeanor, the law never considers answerable. We have therefore to consider only the legally normal child, since the law takes no cognizance of abnormalities that do not amount to imbecility or insanity, who has voluntarily, in the sense that voluntarily means with sense and volition, not as a blind or hypnotized tool, committed an offense against the law, and who is at the general age of adolescence or pre-adolescence.

Besides these distinctions we have also that of sex to consider and in this paper I want to put all my emphasis on that division of supreme importance. A significant study in this line is found in the diagram of the "Curve of Sex-divergence," where from birth to eight or nine years, the sex curves of children run comparatively close; but at ten they have begun to diverge; at twelve they have separated sharply; and during later adolescence, from sixteen to twenty, they are wide asunder. In other words

a woman-child from the earliest dawn of adolescence has a different set of motives, emotions, and ideals, and responds to a different group of stimuli from the man-child. The truth is so well recognized by the medical profession that physicians prescribe not only a different hygiene, but different drugs, for adolescent girls and boys. And no man or woman has ever become a great teacher of youth until he has assimilated this fact in all its moral and physiological significance. It is the slogan for both those who decry and those who defend co-education. It is recognized by the law in its labor provisions; it is played upon by the charlatan and the quack. The statistician in his reports on "Juvenile Offenders" also records it when he states that of a hundred convictions only 15% are girls, and that among girls the crimes against the person form 80% of the offenses. When will we wake up? How long will we dare to continue to use the same well-worn formulae and stimuli for both our girl and our boy? Or — if we do — can we wonder that the boy bolts, and that the girl stultifies herself? And suppose a boy does bolt? He can try again. Suppose he "goes bad" a second or a third time, either through animal spirits or bad companions? He can begin all over again. Suppose he even stays out nights, and goes into the lower forms of degradation? Even then, if he can pull himself together physically and morally, he has not lost his chance for a decent manhood and a square deal. But is it so with my girl? No, a thousand times no! By the publicity of even one appearance in Court her reputation is tarnished, and with her reputation in question, her chance to retrieve herself in the same environment is very small. And in that 80% of crimes against the person, does my girl get a fair chance to "try again?" No, the world is against her, evil men are ready to tempt her further, the industrial situation helps to put her at their mercy, and even nature herself gives a last push towards the downward path when she physically handicaps her. No! My girl who has once become a delinquent finds it a thousand times more difficult to straighten herself than the boy, and the delinquent girl must be preserved from the *opportunities* of temptation which are inevitably more fatal to her than to the boy.

In view of this fact and of the recent wonderful strides of biological psychology, it seems incredible that to-day our Juvenile Courts are applying the same methods of reform to boys

and girls in the critical, responsive, and formative period of their lives and that a woman who takes high rank among probation officers in the United States should have said to me: "I do not care for girls, I never give my workers any especial instructions about them; the girls are so few that we don't pay them any particular attention." Far wiser and saner were the words of another woman, "Girls are so different from boys, and each one is a problem in herself. It takes a specialist to deal with them." A specialist, that is what the girl needs from the moment she comes under the care of the State; and that is what we should be prepared to give her — a specialist who will find out *her* individual life-temptations, environment and needs. And since there are, proportionately speaking, "so few" delinquent girls, let us be thankful, for we can the better prepare ourselves to help them.

When such a girl is brought before the Judge there are three courses open to him:

I. To send her back to the same environment under the care of a probation officer.

II. To place her in a good home under the care of the probation officer or some child-placing agency.

III. To send her to a training school, preferably under the care of the State.

In the *first case* a girl morally tainted should obviously not be returned to the scene of her infection. And only in cases of trivial misdemeanor or in the exceptional case where the girl has a good, normal home and has gone astray by accident or by chance companions, can she be safely so returned. For no one, not even a probation officer of the greatest ability, can immediately or radically change the character of a girl's family or of vicious environment. And again is my emphasis laid on the division of sex. A boy who has been in Court and been returned to his home under the care of a "lady cop," is not necessarily disgraced; indeed, unless I am much mistaken, he is far more interesting, and even something of a hero. But the girl who has been once before the Court has already become "marked" even to her companions in misdemeanor who were lucky enough to escape arrest. And in all probability the period of acute temptation for the girl will come at such a time of sudden family stress and strain as the home-coming of a drunken parent or at

night when the indispensable aid and counsel of the probationer is not immediately available.

Who has ever heard of a "fallen boy?" Yet if a girl in the same uncongenial surroundings does the same things as a boy, beginning with petty thieving and ending with vagrancy and staying out at night, who says she did it only out of excess of animal spirits? Who says "there is no such thing as a bad, a fallen girl?" This last distinction is so well recognized that I urge upon you, *recognize it in the beginning,* and act. Let the Judge begin the good work and not treat the boy and girl alike. Let him guard the girl, remove her from her environment, and in cases of slight misdemeanor or of merely criminal tendencies, place her in a good home which the well-trained probation officer or a good child-placing agency will find.

But here again will the utmost wisdom and discretion be needed. The normal home is the place for the normal child; but every delinquent, by her very delinquency, needs additional care, special training, and above all, special affection. A heavy responsibility rests on Judges to conscientiously examine the reputation of the families in which delinquents are placed, and on probationers to see that they live up to their reputation and responsibilities and that the girl is fitted for the home.

No plea can be strong enough to urge Judges not to send a girl who is already morally tainted into a home, but to send her to a training school at once. For if it is a crime against the community to harbor a person afflicted with small-pox, is it not a greater crime to put into a family a person capable of infecting its members with a moral evil more hideous than physical disease? And it is not only a crime against that household and against the community, but against the very girl we are claiming to help. For as a hospital, with every care of science and devoted nursing, is the better place for physical leprosy, so our girl, in a training-school, under the daily care of women skilled in the treatment of moral as well as mental deficiencies, will be best cured of her moral disease, best trained in self-knowledge and self-control, in the arts of home-making and of self-support.

But in order to produce this natural and ideal result we must have a training-school founded on the basis of normal family life, and carried out along lines of development proper to an adolescent girl. A school of this character will reach its highest

plane of efficiency in so far as it avoids the military organization and institutionalism which in the various schools for delinquent boys have proven so beneficent, and comes nearer the real, spontaneous family life, where groups of girls form separate households in which each individual has her natural and necessary place and work. Make as many groups or homes as you like; but let each have its own individual life and come into the larger life of the whole institution as an entity, as a household in the civic community, and thus have in fact as well as in theory a school made up of homes. And, as in outside life, let all government and work and education be general and in common, with each girl "going home" to her own little group when the work of the day or hour is over; so that by actual living she can begin to appreciate not only her responsibilities and duties in her family group, but also its relation to other families and an outside world.

In order that our girls may be fitted to enter an outside home as quickly as possible, I believe that all stress should be laid upon the arts of home-making and home-keeping in the logical and progressive order of personal cleanliness, laundry work, baking, sewing including mending and patching, cooking, dressmaking including millinery, household hygiene, and elements of sanitation and nursing, with constant training in the common-school branches and outdoor games. With this practical education is inextricably bound up the spiritual and moral significance of each branch of study, from the meaning of moral cleanliness to the clothing of the soul in decency and honor, and the self-control and joyousness of play. And above and below and surrounding all the life and teaching must be affection, affection, and again affection. The government is to be based upon it, the teaching to be instinct with it, and each individual to have such demonstration of it that she will be compelled even against her will to believe in it. And in this lies one of the most fundamental of the sex divergencies at adolescence. A boy needs to be surrounded, as does every living thing, by affection; but at that age he needs to be shown its value in honor and manliness, valor and heroism, the glorious and abstract virtues. The girl craves and needs affection as a particular and personal affair, that "some one" should care whether she — the individual Mary or Susan — is good or bad, that "some one" it matters little who — should

give her the individual affection and care and even demonstration that is as necessary to the normal spiritual growth of a girl as is sunshine to the life of a plant.

Because of the time-limit I have been able merely to indicate the outlines of this interesting and intricate problem; but I must not omit that in my community of homes there must be one even more specially cared for than the others, where the girls who are mentally as well as morally deficient and yet not idiots, can be trained until they too can become useful and happy, and do their share of work, however small. And this group will inevitably become larger than the others, for we are beginning to reach the day when an elightened public opinion will *demand* that our girls who are morally and mentally unfit to care for themselves — and incurably so — remain under the care of the State; and that even when they can be self-supporting, they be not allowed to become self-controlling. This is such an obvious reform that we must marvel that it was not accomplished years ago, for Dr. Allen tells us that in the State of Pennsylvania alone there are ten thousand persons mentally deficient and that only about two thousand are under state or private guardianship. When I add to this that Dr. Allen says it is a well-known medical fact that idiocy and epilepsy carry most surely through the mother, do you wonder that I plead that my girl who is not only a delinquent but a chronic defective be continued under State control?

In my school there must be also special place for the saddest of all cases in the Juvenile Court; for those girls who, scarcely more than children themselves, are about to become mothers. For them we need a home, a refuge, and a care as special and loving as their case is desperate. For they have not time to be trained in the arts of home-making and the means of self-support. All opportunities must be seized in preparing them — physically and morally — for their immediate future, in teaching them how to clothe and feed and most of all how to love the little, unwanted stranger; so that mayhap, by God's grace, the girl may be taught and regenerated by the love and cares of her involuntary motherhood.

She, however, is the sadder exception; and let us go back to our more usual delinquent in her training-school. As soon as she has successfully finished her education, her training for fit-

ness to live in an outside family, as soon as she is ready for graduation, we should put her into a carefully selected home, not as a delinquent from the Courts, but as a self-respecting member of a family trained to do her part and take her share in the great "give and take" of life, regularly visited by the probation officer of the school, and in the end to become self-supporting, either as a worker in her industrial corner, or in a home of her own which is the natural end of all women of whatsoever degree.

The girl has then outgrown her delinquency, and the vexing problem is solved.

"But," you say, "this is an ideal." Surely yes, but an ideal which is both practical and economical. The cost to the state of even one bad girl in her far-reaching influence for social evil is incalculable. And if the way to reform a boy is to begin with his grandfather, then let us begin to-day, now, to reform the *grandmother* of the girl who will be the contemporary, of *our* granddaughter!

INDUSTRIAL TRAINING FOR BOYS.

BY JAMES ALLISON, SUPERINTENDENT CINCINNATI HOUSE OF REFUGE.

Every person familiar with the administration of institutions for training dependent or delinquent youth recognizes the paramount value of the word *occupation*. Activity is the normal condition of every boy's brain. During waking hours his mind knows neither weariness nor rest.

The wise manager recognizes the variety, the exuberance, the strength of these forces. He does not attempt to oppose or repress them. He will study their nature. So far as he may he will guide them into some fit channel of occupation, something which will properly absorb and utilize time, energy and interest; suitable occupation will be constant, agreeable, varied and useful.

It has been urged that a scheme of complete occupation gives the boy no time "for himself" in which to develop his own personality. The danger is that in that time some other personality may be developed much less safe for the boy. The lack of complete occupation opens the door to an infinity of evils. Occupation should be agreeable. This does not mean that it

should be all play, although proper play in just proportion is one of the most fitting forms of occupation. A reasonable amount of real bona fide work should come into each week-day's program.

The significance of work varies with the point of view. It is easy to make any work a burden; it is not difficult to make all work a blessing. It should never be a punishment. The condition of pleasure or dislike pertaining to work, depends upon the atmosphere which surrounds the occupation. The chief aim should be to train our boys to habits of industry and obedience to law, by imbuing their minds with principles of morality and truth, by furnishing them means to earn an honest living. The man or woman who has a good trade or occupation, who can help other people to satisfy their wants, is usually able to take care of himself or herself and is anxious to do so. The person who lacks that power of self-support, and meets the stress of hunger and cold, presently yields and becomes a tramp or a pauper.

The first requirement should be that every one in the institution who has passed the age and conditions of infancy, shall have to do each day a regularly assigned modicum of work. This work need not be drudgery, or beyond the strength or wisdom of the child. It should be done under cheery impulses, with no incentive of fear or harsh discipline of a task-master. It is something to be done well, thoroughly, promptly, every day. Even if it cost an attendant more care and "bother" than it would to do the work and have done with it, he must not forget that the indispensable part of the exercise is to teach the gospel of good works, and the delight of doing things well. Opportunity for such work is found in the infinite field of housework. The care of bedding and the making of beds; the gathering of dirt and dust; the setting and clearing of tables; the washing and placing of dishes; the policing of ground and lawns; the preparation of food and the washing, ironing, and mending of clothes. Even to little girls may be assigned the care of lesser ones, to watch the toddling steps and keep face and hair tidy.

The next field of labor appears in the clothing and outfitting of the household. So many children are to be clad and kept warm and clean, shod, and fitted with hats and caps. All these garments should be made in the house, not more for economy's sake than for the opportunity of giving excellent employment to

the inmates. The arts of the tailor, the dressmaker, the milliner, and the shoemaker are in constant demand. Every girl should learn to cut, fit, make, and finish, every article of apparel she wears, not excepting knit goods, and after she is fourteen years of age she should wear nothing, shoes perhaps excepted, that she has not made, or cannot make herself.

In brief a certain amount of work is required to supply the constant every-day wants of the little community gathered in the Home. Most of these wants must be supplied by the daily and taught labor of the inmates. This work, with its incident instruction, should be constantly going on, partly for the economies involved, but, chiefly that the inmates may become skilled in all the processes which these occupations include, and thus may acquire the power of earning a living when the time comes for them to wrestle with the world.

What limit shall be set to the kinds of work which the children may be taught? Theoretically there is none. As there is no honest occupation at which any human being may not rightfully use his labor and his skill, so there is none which may not rightfully be taught in such a school.

Practically, however, there are limits which will usually be found to control this subject and answer the question. The first will come from the capacity of the institution to consume the products of its working inmates. The clothes, and shoes, and gowns they make they will use. The bread made they will eat. Minor repairs and changes, wear and tear, the furnishing and brightening of apartments, will give work for the carpenter, the painter, the glazier, the mason or plasterer. Competent instructors should be engaged to teach in each of the specialties and keep some number of boys constantly employed.

Two points will be observed. The first, and that of least importance, is that in none of the occupations named is any considerable outlay required for equipment. The whole equipment of the institution, however, its grounds, buildings, outfit, and officers, is a manufactory which society has erected at a large cost for the express purpose of making men and women out of waifs and strays, and if a few thousands of dollars can be profitably invested in some specific part of this enterprise to insure a large output, the money ought not to be withheld.

The second, of larger importance, is that the Home does not have to seek a market outside of itself. It does not and should not directly become a competitor in trade. Yet the question of competition is one of sentiment rather than of fact. The competition that the boys in an asylum of five hundred inmates could effect in a community, say, like that of Ohio, with a population of four millions, is purely a fiction of the imagination. But it may be prudent to avoid controversy.

The institution, the Home of Deserted Children, undertakes in its imperfect fashion to supply the place of the lost parents, of the vanished family. It takes the child, shelters, feeds, clothes, teaches, and disciplines him — all most worthy things to do — keeps him until those days of budding youth, when careful guidance is most needful, and then, let us suppose, dismisses him to the uncertain greeting of a preoccupied and selfish world. No mention is made of those who go, perhaps earlier, to places in well chosen and worthy homes. But suppose that to the others no such good fortune has fallen. Of all the services that the home has rendered him — and they are, without doubt, far-reaching and beyond estimation — none stands him now in so great stead as the fact that he has learned how to earn his own living. Having the ability to do this he is comparatively safe. Without it he is in great danger.

Evidently the fact that the boy has good muscle and a strong arm is not enough. Unskilled labor is always a drug in the market and the older and stronger man takes precedence of our boy. Evidently the fact that such a boy is a good scholar is not enough. There are plenty with a "pull" which this lad has not, to occupy all the posts for which mental discipline is the chief requisite. We do not under-value mental discipline. There can not be too much of it and the boy from the Home is not likely to be overstocked therewith.

If, then, there is any service more indispensable than another which an institution of the kind named in the subject for discussion can do for the children intrusted to its care, male or female, it is that it may endow each with the essential elements of good occupation. Should the reply be made that this is no more than the condition that attaches to each person in any walk

in life as he or she comes to maturity, the suggestions already offered show the greater need in this case.

Such asylums are too frequently domiciled within narrow limits, in the territory of some city, where land is too costly to be freely used. Occasionally one has been pushed out of the town into purer air amid nature's surroundings, and where land can be secured at reasonable cost. In such a place, away from the allurements of a great city, a domain of a few hundred acres of land opens up a vista of possibilities for the development of an ideal institution such as we see in fact to-day at Glen Mills, of which the city of Philadelphia should feel justly proud.

Scarcely a single condition could be named which would not appear to be improved. Especially valuable would be the opportunity for useful, healthful, and instructive work in great variety. But even here the lines of work suggested, through which the children of the institution are taught to provide for their own wants, and to become self-sustaining, should not be discarded. Such training as can be given in each of the simpler and commoner trades should not for an instant be omitted and the comparatively small cost should be promptly met by the state, district, or community where such homes are located.

V.

Child Labor.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY SAMUEL MCCUNE LINDSAY, PH. D., GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, CHAIRMAN.

This is the first time in the history of the National Conference, that there has been a standing committee on Child Labor. The committee on children, however, has reported upon this subject on several occasions, notably and fully at the Atlanta Conference, in 1903. It seems, therefore, wise to our committee not to restate and present for discussion, the general arguments against Child Labor, but rather to summarize and discuss the existing legal restrictions on Child Labor in the leading industrial states of the Union. The main argument against Child Labor is adequately presented in several notable papers in the volume of our Conference reports of 1903. I would like especially to call attention to the paper on that occasion presented by Mr. Edgar Gardner Murphy whose absence now we must all sincerely regret. The report of your committee on Child Labor this year consists of a series of individual reports covering the geographical areas indicated in the following assignments of State reports among the members of the Committee.

Mrs. May Alden Ward, Boston, Mass. — Massachusetts.

George A. Hall, New York City — New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island and New Jersey.

Scott Nearing, Philadelphia, Pa. — Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Michigan.

A. J. McKelway, Atlanta, Ga.—North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Florida.

Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md. — Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia and Tennessee.

Edward W. Frost, Milwaukee, Wis. — Wisconsin, Minnesota, North and South Dakota.

* Discussion on Child Labor, p. 521.

Arthur O. Lovejoy, St. Louis, Mo. — Missouri, Nebraska.

Mrs. B. H. Trumbull, Portland, Ore. — Oregon, California.

Owen R. Lovejoy, New York City — New Mexico, Arizona, Indian Territory, Oklahoma, and the District of Columbia.

For our consideration at this meeting, I shall now attempt to summarize, in a brief statement, the significant general facts of our recent child labor legislation and point out some of its tendencies and most urgent needs. We have here to-night reports from twenty-six states and four territories prepared by the individual members of this Committee. They cover, as far as possible some information for each of those states on the following points:

I. What are the age limits in your child labor law?

II. What industries does it cover?

III. Is there a compulsory education law, and if so what age limit does it prescribe?

IV. What is the average school term?

V. What are the most prevalent forms of child labor and their relative importance?

VI. What provision is made for factory inspection or official enforcement of both the child labor and compulsory education laws?

VII. Is such enforcement adequate so far as it goes, and how far does it cover or fail to cover the needs of the situation?

VIII. What are the chief industries employing children and the character of their opposition to child labor legislation?

IX. What recent efforts have been made to extend larger protection to working children?

X. What agencies, in order of their importance, have urged a further restriction of child labor?

XI. What is the attitude of the labor unions, and how strong are they?

XII. How efficient are the public educational authorities and what is their attitude toward the employment certificate and the educational test?

That information is just about what the average practical worker needs at hand for ready reference, to know enough of the situation in any particular locality to cooperate effectually with those charged with the enforcement of the law and to bring

all of the educational and philanthropic agencies together in the war on Child Labor. It was not necessary for us to collect the exact text of the law, in the several states because that has already been done and anyone interested in the subject of Child Labor, wanting the law on this subject, can find it corrected and brought down to the first of January of this year in the Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, No. 62, January, 1906, which can be obtained for the asking upon application to the Commissioner of Labor at Washington. Nor did we need to present a general summary of the legislation bearing upon the more important points in the restriction of Child Labor because that has already been done each year for several successive years by the National Consumers' League in its annual handbook. The publications of the National Child Labor Committee also cover these points and discuss a program for further reform. I shall therefore in the time allotted for the presentation of this report, simply call attention to the more significant facts and tendencies brought out in the individual reports from members of the Committee. In the matter of legislation it is obvious that we are just beginnng to apply the remedes at hand, little by little, here and there, in a timid way.

Within two years great improvements have been made in the laws relating to children in many States and we have in some States practically a children's code which includes this subject of Child Labor, — a code of legislation that is destined to protect the child from the encroachments of industry, from the selfish greed of employers, or from indifference and equally selfish greed on the part of parents. Such legislation lacks uniformity in the several states, yet if Congress had the power to legislate for the nation on this subject we would probably have a very low standard, or would find it impossible to establish any satisfactory standard at all because of the great diversity in the industrial conditions in different parts of the country. As it is now some states experiment and others may benefit from their experiments. In some communities reported upon by our committee the legislation on child labor has been not only tested in the Courts but has been so perfected that it will hold water as the lawyers say. The law in New York State notably, has undergone consecutive modification so that it now is an enforceable

law, and with the present active department of factory inspection, the laws are being rigidly enforced.

Massachusetts, which long led the procession in factory legislation but recently dropped behind New York and Illinois in its child labor laws, comes again to the front. It has just passed a law that defines the educational test so that there is no longer any doubt as to what is meant by the lines saying that a child shall be able to read at sight and write legibly simple sentences in the English language, because the law now provides that, in the year 1906, this shall mean such ability as is required for admission to the second grade of the public schools; in the year 1907, the standard shall be advanced to the third grade and in the year 1908 and thereafter to the fourth grade. That is something definite, something needed to make the educational test really effective when we begin to try and put it into practice.

During the year 1905, in twenty-two states and one territory there was some legislation referring to the matter of Child Labor. In many of those states it was a modification of the laws already existing. In a few of them it simply meant a law that protected children from extreme cruelty. In some of them it meant a very decided and definite code, for the protection of children in numerous occupations. During this year, not so many legislatures have been in session; the number of laws passed is very much smaller, but there has been some notable legislation. For the first time, the state of Iowa has a comprehensive Child Labor law. For several successive legislative sessions, the good people of Iowa have struggled for such a law and have failed. This year, largely through the efforts of the strong State committee organized recently by the National Child Labor Committee, and of the women's clubs of that state, a very good beginning has been made in a general law regulating Child Labor throughout the state.

New York has made a further advance in the matter of the regulation of hours of night work by prohibiting work after 7 p. m. for all children under sixteen in factories and in stores, in cities of the first class, and after 10 p. m. in stores in other cities. On the other hand, New York, in order to get this had to compromise and take a slight backward step and legalize the employment of children twelve years of age during the vaca-

tions of the public schools in all parts of the state excepting cities of the first class.

In Kentucky, perhaps the most notable advance has been made, in that all night work is prohibited for children under the age of sixteen and a fairly practicable standard fourteen-year law has been enacted, although with a poverty exemption clause.

In Missouri, as the report indicates, an advance has been made through the compulsory education law. Yet the poverty exemption exists in that law and the Secretary of the State Committee in his report to the Conference says that, in the city of St. Louis alone, three hundred children were exempted by the attendance officers on the ground of poverty and that their wages were necessary for the support of their families. A movement, however, is now in process of organization to take care of these cases in the better way of providing school scholarships thus permitting the child to have the opportunities of attending school.

In Maryland an interesting report shows us a very peculiar situation which well illustrates some of the difficulties frequently encountered in the attempts to secure legislation of this kind. There was a law in Maryland regulating the employment of children up to the age of fourteen but it applied only to four counties of the state. Now the law enacting the twelve-year standard has been passed for the whole state, the only exemption being during the summer months for the country districts where the canning industry is carried on. That is a bad exemption, of course, but it was an exemption that had to be made in order to secure the enactment of any enforceable law. There is this great encouragement however, in the Maryland law that for the first time a department of factory inspectors is established with an adequate force to make a good beginning at an actual enforcement of the law, and the State Committee there reports that during the next two years it hopes to make such investigations, through the aid of these inspectors; and through their reports so to bring the situation home to the people of Maryland, as to secure at the next session of the legislature an advance in this standard.

Throughout the southern states very little advance has been made beyond the age of twelve years and that only regulating

certain industries and in most cases allowing exemptions from regulations on the ground of poverty.

Time fails us to present in greater detail the legislation as it exists to-day in all our states, but I think if you have followed the few generalizations made in this report you will agree with me in this summing up, namely that the conclusion of the whole matter, so far as it touches questions in which this Conference is primarily interested, is that a good Child Labor law is not only a measure designed to protect children in certain industries, or in all industries, but that it is a statement on the part of the community, of the value it sets on the child and therefore it carries with it a corresponding obligation. We may all of us have a certain amount of sympathy, as I think we have, with movements to bring about such legislation. Very few of us have any idea of the difficulties of enforcement of such legislation and of the burdens that it lays upon the community. It means that we, who are identified with any form of practical, social work, must assume the burden or the cost of maintaining the standard set in our Child Labor law. If we say no child shall work under the age of fourteen, in order to enforce that law, we must be prepared to guarantee to the child freedom from work up to its fourteenth birthday and if that means the taking care of families that are needy, where the earnings that the child under fourteen might possibly get are needed for the support of the family, it means that other agencies must provide that family with the necessary support to prevent that child from feeling the necessity of going to work before it reaches its fourteenth birthday. We are glad to see that charitable societies and philanthropic agencies generally have recognized the new duty imposed upon them by this new type of legislation and the one thought that ought to be brought home most forcibly to us, in the various fields of activity represented in this Conference, is that if we want social legislation, if we want legislation that will make better the communities in which we live, we must be willing to pay the price in the additional work, in the additional burdens that must be assumed in order to see such legislation enforced. We must be prepared to meet the difficulties that invariably arise in every community, in the application of any legislation affecting industry. Industry is varied, not only in the opportunities for work that are held out

to adults, as well as to children, but in the conditions by which it is affected. Only recently, possibly the most efficient inspector of factories in this country, told me something personally of the difficulties that he had found in the regulation of dangerous machinery. "Now," he said, "under the law in my state I have the authority to say that a particular type of machine is dangerous and then it comes under the provision of the law regulating dangerous machines, but," he said, "manifestly a machine that might have no great element of danger for a skilled mechanic would not be safe for a girl of sixteen years of age to operate; and yet there is no discretionary power lodged in me as factory inspector to discriminate between those two conditions" and in a number of other ways he illustrated some of the many difficulties that presented themselves in the practical enforcement of the factory laws.

Social legislation of the type of our child labor laws, imposes upon us the additional duty of working out the detailed adjustment of the local conditions in every part of the country, or every part of the state, to the particular law that applies in that region, and that means that we must have additional information. It is for that reason that the national Child Labor Committee has undertaken to act as a steering committee, to aid and to co-operate with local committees in bringing the experience of one section of the country to bear in another section of the country. For the same reason the National Child Labor Committe has recommended to all the societies interested in this matter throughout the country, the establishment of a National Bureau at Washington, which shall officially collect the latest scientific information pertaining to the welfare of children engaged in industry, and present it to the people of the whole country in such a way that local societies, factory inspectors, state legislatures and administrative officers of all descriptions shall have at hand the latest available information, the best results of modern scientific inquiry, and the best summary of the work of all agencies that make for the upbuilding of child life in this country. I hope that the establishment of this Bureau may be a matter that will appeal individually to the members of this Conference and that individually, through the societies we represent, we may do what we can to have the government of the United States undertake for the children, at least as complete and serious investigation as it

does for our national industries, fisheries and crops. It may well endeavor to do as much to promote the permanent improvement of the human beings of the state as it does now for that of the animal industries.

THE MORAL DANGERS OF PREMATURE EMPLOYMENT.

BY MRS. FLORENCE KELLEY, GEN. SEC. OF THE CONSUMER'S LEAGUE.

It seems a very great undertaking to speak in the place of Miss Addams* on a moral question, and the only excuse for my attempting to do so is, that this particular moral question she and I studied together for seven years at Hull House, and we have been studying it separately ever since. Dr. Neill has pointed out the insufficiency of our New York Newsboy Law. The reason that law is so insufficient constitutes one of the abiding scandals of philanthropy. I served on a Committee which prepared the original bill. We made it as rigid as we dared in view of the fear that was generally felt lest the newspapers, if it were drawn too rigidly, should prevent any measure from being passed. That fear did great injustice to the press of New York. No great journal cares, certainly no great journal fears that, if its issues are not sold by young children on the streets, they will not be adequately sold. There was no serious opposition from the metropolitan press to the passage of the Newsboy Law. On the contrary there were many favorable editorials. The original draft provided that no child should work on the streets under the age of twelve years, that none should work after eight o'clock at night until he was fourteen years old, and that each should be responsible to the Board of Education — should be looked after by the attendance agents of the Board of Education between the ages of twelve and fourteen years. To the consternation of the Child Labor Committee, at the hearing before the Senate Committee at Albany in 1903, Commodore Gerry, not a citizen of New York, but of Rhode Island, came from Newport to Albany and succeeded in having the bill amended to its present

* Mrs. Kelley was called upon, at very brief notice, to take the place on the program of Miss Addams, who was unexpectedly prevented attending the Conference.

form. According to the law as it stands, a child under the age of ten years may not sell papers; a child under the age of fourteen may not work after ten o'clock at night; and it is the uniformed police who have the enforcing of the statute. Of course any newsboy is far more spry than any uniformed policeman. Of course, no one is more sensitive to ridicule, and particularly to the ridicule of the street gamins, than that same uniformed police. Commodore Gerry might have saved himself all trouble as to other provisions of the law, when he handed it over to the police to enforce. Very little children, seven and eight years old, daily sell papers under the eyes of the police in New York City. We cannot get any enforcement of the law and we never shall, I believe, until it is placed, as it ought to have been placed and as it was in the original draft, in the hands of the school authorities for enforcement.

The value of the statute hitherto has been confined to its turning a brilliant light upon our civilization in the metropolis of this Republic. One provision required that every child who wished to sell papers must have a badge furnished by the Board of Education. The law was to take effect on the first of July. The schools closed at the end of June. There would be almost two months during which the children could not get badges unless the Board of Education made provision for them before the schools closed. Therefore, every child who thought he might want to sell papers, between the first of July and the opening of school in September, was required to make application for his badge at the close of school in June. Six thousand children applied, including those already ten years old and those who would reach the tenth birthday during July and August. But as they came to the Board of Education to get their badges, they had to bring a parent or a guardian to give written consent to the boy's beginning this work. Only one-third of the children could bring a parent or guardian willing to have them go to work upon the streets.

In the three years that this statute has been on the books, the one valuable purpose which it has served is thus showing that it is not true that the working people of New York are obliged to send their little children upon the streets in order to maintain the families. Two-thirds of the parents tested do not wish their children to be upon the streets, but regard their efforts to earn

money in that way as simply a means of escaping the discipline of the family, and the children so regard it too. That is the one, real service that the initial measure has rendered.

How long it will take to get a workable statute for the protection of newsboys in New York no one can tell, because the most influential charitable body dealing with children in New York City blocks the way. May none of you have similar experience in your home cities!

What we really have got now is a factory law which is beginning to be enforced. Unhappily, however, we have a provision that anyone may work at an industry in a tenement house, provided that that industry is covered by a license, framed and hung in the front hall of the tenement so conspicuously that anyone who enters cannot fail to see it. The same law that applies to factories and workshops, nominally applies to these home workplaces. Nominally children must go to school until they are fourteen years old and cannot be employed under that age in manufacture. But who shall visit tenements so numerous that they include more than two hundred and fifty thousand dark rooms, and be sure that the children are not at work when they are out of school? So long as we permit any manufacture to be carried on in the tenement houses of New York City, the children will work in that manufacture. We can never free them, and get them into school during school hours and out of doors during play hours, until we sweepingly prohibit that pest of the life of the poor, the forcing of manufacture into their kitchens and bed rooms.

I have now confessed the sins of the city where I dwell, and I venture to speak with equal frankness of the rest of the country of which, also, I am a citizen.

Let us take account of stock; we have been taking account of stock hitherto as to what we have done; let us take account of stock as to what remains to be done, in the matter of enforcement of the child labor laws.

Only four states south of the city of Washington make any pretense whatever of enforcing any child labor law, and in two of those four states it is sheer pretense. Maryland will now have factory inspectors, six of them or more perhaps, and there will be a search of the factories in an effort to find the children and to bring the employers to task. Tennessee has a child labor law, but no adequate staff of inspectors to enforce it. North

Carolina has a small number of agents attached to its Bureau of Labor Statistics who gather information; but there is no pretense that children who work illegally in the cotton mills of North Carolina receive any adequate protection by means of prosecutions under the statute placed upon the books of North Carolina three years ago. In the South, apart from Maryland, Tennessee, Kentucky and North Carolina there is no restriction enforced upon employers or parents of working children. Georgia has no child labor law whatsoever.

There are certain objective tests of the working of Child Labor Laws. The best one is the presence of children in the schools. After the law of 1903 took effect in Illinois, there was an epidemic of school building, from Chicago to the smallest town of that state. In Illinois the child labor law is enforced. The employer who has a child illegally at work in Illinois is fined, and fined again and, if necessary, sent to jail. In Chicago, parents who keep their children from school and have them work are fined when the employer is fined, as they should be. There is, I believe, a more rigid enforcement of law for the protection of children in Illinois than anywhere else in the civilized world, except in Colorado. The second objective test is the amount of the fines paid by employers and parents. These are more worthy of respect in Illinois than in any other state in this country at this time. Thirteen thousand dollars in fines were paid in the year before last by employers, and the amount has increased this year.

The Consumers' League publishes every year, a comparison of the statutes of the different states and of the methods of enforcement of those statutes, and we make it as invidious as we can. We make a black list of those states which have no statutes, and a gray list of those which have statutes not enforced, and at the top we put the white list of states really doing something for the protection of children against premature labor. This last year we wrote to the officers charged with the work of enforcing the law, asking them for a complete list of all prosecutions of employers with the amount of fines collected. From many states there came no answer; from other states there came vehement assertions that prosecutions were about to begin.

From Ohio, with its notorious illegal employment of boys under sixteen years of age at night, in glassworks, came the statement that under the law which had been on the statute book

for many years, there had been during the year 1905, up to the 15th of November, three prosecutions, and the amount of money paid in fines was forty-five dollars. In Pennsylvania, so far as we can learn from the United States census of 1900, there were then more children engaged in manufacture than in the whole of the southern states. There are more children engaged in mines in Pennsylvania than in any other state, and the Superior Court of this state has just sent the children back from the schools to the mines and the breakers. The children believed that they were obliged to go to school, under the law passed in 1905, which required that those who could not prove their age according to the method laid down in the Child Labor Law, must prove at least that they had finished the first five years' work of the public schools. The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States (enacted to insure to the negroes their civil rights) was held by the Superior Court of Pennsylvania, to debar the legislature of that state from requiring that children who cannot prove their age shall, before working in the mines, complete a certain part of the curriculum of the public schools; and the children are working to-day in the mines as they worked ten years ago in 1896.

When we apply the objective test, how far in this Republic the children over ten years old are in the schools, the answers that come from the mining districts and from the manufacturing cities are not cheering. The building of school houses does not keep pace, outside of Illinois, with the growth of the number of children. The objective test of the amount of money paid by employers in fines for violation of the law is, as I have stated, not cheering in its results. It applies in other states very much as it does in Ohio.

There is a third test. What fines are parents paying for not keeping their children in school? We have tried to apply that in New York and we find that, where thousands of children are taken into Court, and sent to free boarding houses (which we generously maintain in New York to relieve parents from their burdensome progeny), and where hundreds of children were taken into Court as truants under the Compulsory Education Law last year, only thirty-three parents were fined. Thirty-three parents paid fines under the Compulsory Education Law in

a city of which the population is four million. There is no assurance that the record will be any better this year.

I venture to suggest that everyone in this audience apply these same tests in the community in which he or she lives. What fines are paid by employers for violation of the child labor law? What fines are paid by derelict parents for failure to keep the children in school? And how many parents or employers have been sent to jail for violation of these statutes? The result will not be very different from the results in Pennsylvania, and in New York, and in Ohio. It will be an interesting experiment, and it will give a more serious sense of the difficulty of saving the children from premature work and overwork, than any other that I know.

So much for a very grave moral danger to the community. The moral dangers to the children have been effectively outlined by previous speakers. There is no danger so grave for a community as that of hypocrisy, and that is the danger with which the presence of child labor menaces us. For we put these statutes on the books with relatively little difficulty. It is when we take them into Court that we find they do not hold water under the interpretation of our present judges. It is when we attempt to get officials appointed who will really enforce them, that we find the community does not want them enforced.

In New York the local child labor committee has had a gift of twenty-five hundred dollars for this year, to furnish scholarships for any children who might otherwise be in danger of suffering hardships because the law requires that before going to work every child shall finish the first five years of the public schools, or a curriculum equivalent to that of the first five years. If children are imported by relatives already here, for purposes of exploitation, it is a good deal to require that they go to school until they are sixteen years old, or until they have finished the work of the first five years. So scholarships have been arranged and a committee (most of whose members are settlement residents and some of whom are workers in the Charity Organization Society) administers this gift. The idea is to give to families virtually an equivalent to the wages which the child had already been earning. It was arranged that the four great societies, the Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the United Hebrew Charities

and St. Vincent de Paul, should take care of children below the age of fourteen years, and the scholarship committee should take care of them between fourteen and sixteen. There have been, I think, between two and three hundred applications in a city of four million people. The committee meets every week. The applications have been very carefully sifted. The records of the four societies are searched for information concerning the applicant family before an award is made, and we believe that we know that the children need the money before it is given them. We believe, also, that we know when they do not need the money, but can be provided for in other ways. The total number of scholarships awarded up to last Friday noon was thirty-eight.

I believe that the working people of New York City can, in nearly all cases, support their children; and that it would not involve hardship if parents were prosecuted when they kept their children out of school instead of being relieved of the care of the children, having a free boarding school provided when, perhaps, a stay in jail over Sunday, after the fashion instituted by Judge Lindsey of Denver, would be more suitable for the father.

There is one child labor law which is very effective, indeed, in the few places in which it is applied; but it was not enacted primarily as a child labor law and does not usually get anything like the credit which is its due. I refer to the law which (originally the product of the experience of Judge Lindsey of Denver) is now gradually being copied in many states, that law which holds all the adults responsible who share in promoting the delinquency of a child. In Denver this law would involve not only bringing into Court the messenger boy who had been in a saloon or disreputable place; it would involve bringing into Court, also, the parent who let the boy be tempted, together with the indirect employer, the person whose message was sent; the direct mployer, agent of the company; the person responsible for letting the boy enter the place. All would be liable to a fine of one thousand dollars each, or to a year in jail each, or to both, in the discretion of the Court. Unhappily, in our New York law we have a grotesque provision that that which is an offense for any other child is permitted to a messenger boy. He comes under the provision of the penal code in force to-night; but he may go to the doors of places to which no other child may go without being guilty of a

misdemeanor and involving in the misdemeanor the person who admits him.

I know no other one provision which, if vigorously enforced, would so benefit the children who work for their living, as that provision of Judge Lindsey's law, which makes the child the ward of the Court on probation, and punishes with fine and imprisonment the employer, the parent, and the person who contributes with them to the delinquency of the child. So long as we do not both enact and enforce that law throughout our Republic, so long the moral dangers which the children suffer are no greater than the danger of hypocrisy settling upon all of us as our habit of mind.

There is one other practical thing. There is no one in this room, at this moment, free from the charge of complicity in the employment of children. There is not one who can say "My conscience is clear; I am not at this moment wearing the product of the labor of any child." The children are in shoe factories and hat factories and nearly all other kinds of factories, making the things that we wear, and most of the things that we eat; they are in the stores selling the things that we buy. So long as we make no vigorous and effective protest against that, what are we but hypocrites, if we profess a vital interest in the lives of the children who work and the temptations to which they are exposed? If anyone has contributed to the resources of the various committees which are endeavoring to save the children who work, and is receiving a share of the moneys so contributed from dividends of any cotton mill or any coal breaker, in which children are employed, or from any telegraph or messenger company employing children, or from any other of the infinite variety of our industries which consume the children then, surely, the moral danger to the children is no greater than the moral danger that besets such philanthropist.

VI.

Care of the Sick.*

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

BY ARTHUR B. ANCKER, M. D., SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CITY AND COUNTY HOSPITAL, ST. PAUL, CHAIRMAN.

Quoting from a recent and admirable work on the subject from the pen of Dr. Walter M. Pyle, of this city, "vigorous health and its accompanying high spirits are larger elements of happiness than any other thing whatsoever, the teaching how to maintain them is a teaching that should yield in moment to no other whatever. Most cases of illness are preventable and Mr. Huxley says we should look upon them as criminal. Illness following disobedience of physiologic laws should be regarded as the punitive result of reprehensible conduct and not as a simple grievance."

It is a matter for congratulation that following the awakening which came with the birth of what we now know as rational medicine we have come to believe that it is as much the office of the physician to instruct his patient in the art of keeping well, as it is to cure him when diseased — to have an intelligent knowledge of the efficient causes of disease and their prevention as well as of its treatment.

Although it is true, even in this age of progress and enlightenment, that the novice in medicine not infrequently enters the lists with a scalpel in one hand and a medical formulary in the other ready to do and to dare, the day of popgun pharmacy and empiricism is dead and he who goes forth to do battle with only such equipment is wandering in the night.

In brief, the writing of prescriptions, the dispensing of drugs is no longer regarded as the chief function of the doctor. The true disciple of Aesculapius should go hand in hand with the sanitarian and the philanthropist, preaching the gospel of health, enlarging the boundaries of knowledge of the laws of life, clearing the minds of his fellow creatures of the superstititions and

* Discussion on Care the Sick, p. 530.

the mysticism with which they have so commonly clothed the practice of medicine, teaching them to differentiate scientific medicine from quackery, awakening the public mind to the importance of public, domestic and personal hygiene.

Unfortunately the greatest foes we have to encounter in our battle against disease and for its prevention, are the credulity and excitability of mankind upon subjects connected with medicine and the habits of carelessness and indifference to things hygienic, formed and fostered in early youth. Inconsistent as it may seem it is not the ignorant and the lowly alone who are unreasoning and unreasonable in their attitude toward the doctor and the sanitarian — it is almost equally true of the well-to-do and cultured. It is a well-known fact that it is among the latter class that the charlatan and the quack, and the vender of vile and foolish nostrums reap their richest harvest.

It is the experience of every individual who has been actively engaged in the practice of medicine that the average patient's cry is for drugs, something powerful and quick of action. It is not enough for him to be told that vicious habits and excesses, the constant and frequent violation of the laws of health and well being are the underlying cause of his malady; that the only possible cure lies in his emancipation from their bondage. He is neither ready nor willing to make the sacrifice but rather seeks the doctor who will pander to his abnormal mode of living by the exhibition of drugs that will for a time suppress the symptoms that are the danger signals of disease; that will delude him with the idea that he is getting well.

But the teachings and the practice of rational medicine will prevail. Decay and death must always be, but the former may be delayed and life prolonged. Already much has been done, especially in the latter half of the nineteenth century, to do both. As we acquire knowledge of the causes of disease and their dissemination, we are learning how to prevent them. The great epidemics and plagues which have scourged the world in ages past are now practically impossible. We know the cause of anthrax, of leprosy, of tuberculosis, of typhoid fever, of diphtheria, of cholera, of lockjaw, of influenza or grippe, of pneumonia, of bubonic plague, and yellow fever, and we are controlling in a remarkable degree by prevention, small-pox, typhoid fever, cholera, yellow fever, bubonic plague, tuberculosis and malaria. We

have found that by the isolation and segregation of patients afflicted with such maladies as diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles and chickenpox the spread and frequency of them has been greatly diminished. Best of all, while, as with other diseases, scientific medicine has no specific for the cure of that most dreaded and most common of all the ills to which flesh is heir — tuberculosis — we have learned that it will cease to prevail when we have educated the public as well as the victim to a proper understanding of its possibilities as well as its care and treatment.

The next great duty of the doctor is to adopt the role of an educator; break into the school room, the literary society, the woman's clubs, the lodge room, the social circle, teaching people the laws of sanitation, the interrelation between the mind and the body.

To do this some of us will have to know much more than we do now. In a large measure we will have to disabuse our minds with regard to the potency of drugs, give more thought and prominence to the pschycological factor in medicine, learn the nature and value of the imagination, the emotions, learn at what ages the different faculties reach their highest stages of development, learn the therapeutic value of suggestion and inhibition, in short take from the school men, enrich the finding, and give back to them and the world that which they deserve at our hands. They are thinking and talking, we also must think and talk. We must invade the legislature, help establish state and municipal boards who have in charge the construction and sanitation of public buildings; attack the pure water problem; through our association, fight for wise legislation and work for child inspection.

We should join hands with the state veterinarian to aid him in complete inspection. As an example in one of the large cattle-producing states, in which there is a law providing for the inspection of cattle without any way of enforcing it, it was shown that in a single herd of one hundred eighty-four there were one hundred seventy-three tubercular; that the same percentage held true in two other herds, and it was authoritatively stated that it would not be an exaggeration to say that at least forty per cent. of the milch cows of that state were tubercular.

Think of it ye who love your rare beefsteak and your glass of sweet milk. An ounce of knowledge is worth a ton of regrets.

To these ends the committee which I have the honor to represent here to-day is laboring. To these ends, the care and treatment of the sick, the prevention of disease, the instruction and education of the public in matters pertaining to their physical well being, the medical world, boards of health, sanitarians and philanthropists are laboring, and to these ends we invite your co-operation.

We are fighting to free our fellow creatures from the bondage of error and prejudice; to lift the curse of suffering and disease from the sin-begotten son of Adam, to bring him to believe that to live long is to live well.

FREE MEDICAL AID FOR THE POOR.

BY CHARLES P. EMERSON, M. D., JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL, BALTIMORE.

The subject is so broad and has been so often discussed since the beginning of our organized charities, that we take the liberty to speak what seems to us a timely word concerning one phase of this topic — we refer to the attitude to be taken by the friendly visitor.

One of our most prominent medical educators recently said with great emphasis, "The duty of the medical schools is to teach, first of all, the general public; secondly, the practitioners, and lastly, the medical students." In the first group the friendly visitors deserve a place, since they are the immediate teachers of the poor.

The tendency has been to spend large sums of money for hospitals, sanatoria for consumptives, asylums, homes, etc., and while this is superb, it is a question if public sentiment has kept pace. We would not for a minute ask that this movement slow down, but we should work harder through our friendly visitors to spur public sentiment on. For instance, one state not far from here has recently appropriated a large sum of money for sanatoria for consumptives. Not far from its largest city there is a small public hospital of thirty beds for early cases, but they cannot persuade even thirty of the thousand incipient cases known to be at large to occupy these beds. In another state where the les-

sons are better learned they have every bed filled and a good waiting list.

If public sentiment be aroused there will be less need of expositions, of strenuous politics to pass bills for state appropriations, etc., for even the poor will insist that these be provided. An excellent illustration is Germany where the best of institutions have been founded as a result of a movement among the common people and with their aid.

Physical disease is in the social organism the cause of most of the cases of social disease. So many families, when at their best, live in mere equilibrium so far as their finances go, that when illness comes the balance is at once disturbed and that family become applicants for charity. And just as the sequelae of an acute disease are often worse than the original attack, so the acute attack of temporary economic dependence due to illness, may leave as its sequel a paralysis of the wage-earning arm, a financial ataxia, which precludes the possibility of future, stable, economic equilibrium, the result of the crushing weight of accumulated debts or the surprise of unexpected aid; or a vicious appetite, a habit of dependence in many ways comparable to the morphia habit, resulting from the experience that the comfort of material relief is pleasant and easy, gradually becoming more binding and requiring increasing doses for its satisfaction.

When because of illness the head of a family is in need of outside help three lines may be followed: First, we may leave him to himself, or help him to bear the expenses for doctor and medicine; second, we may beg free care for him from benevolent practitioners in the neighborhood; or, third, dispensaries and doctors paid to treat these patients may be provided.

Considering the first attitude there is much to be said on both sides. We may urge him to consider the expenses for sick care and treatment as comparable to those of rent, food and clothing. He should not live beyond his means, and should pay for what he gets. If the doctor he chooses is too expensive, we might encourage him to employ one whose fees are smaller, just as we urge him to move to a cheaper house when the rent of his present one is beyond his means. If the medicines are too expensive we may advise him to buy cheaper, the same advice we give concerning food and clothing. But the cases are not quite parallel; the smaller house may still be a good home for the

family, food and clothes are much a matter of taste — those of the poor subserve their purpose quite as well as the more expensive — while the restricted diet of the poor is probably more conducive to good health, continued strength and long life than is that of his richer neighbor. In the matter of the doctor and the medicine the case is different. A case of typhoid fever in a poor man is just as difficult of recognition, requires just as much skill in its treatment as in a rich man; there, rich and poor are equal. Left to himself, or advised to get cheap medical assistance, he is exposed to a motley army of practitioners, good, poor and absolutely bad, struggling for a practice.

You need not think that I will be traitor to the medical profession, but I can speak now as a charity worker and mention the fact that this country has nearly three times as many doctors as are theoretically necessary, and plenty of medical schools which are a disgrace to a civilized country, the graduates of which earn their living from the poor, not the well-to-do. One connected with a large clinic hears repeatedly the same story from the applicants for free treatment, "I had $200.00 saved up, but have spent it all for treatment; the doctor now tells me that my case has progressed so far that he can help me no further and advises me to come to you, but my money is gone and I must have free treatment." Their voice is always pathetic, and almost never do they make any connection between financial and physical crises. There is also a flock of charlatans who like vultures seek their prey among the very poor and ignorant. The laying on of hands, machines for curing blindness, charms for expelling demons, holy oils and private remedies without number are very common in Baltimore. Their terms are ten dollars cash and the rest, all you have, sooner or later. There is in Baltimore a regularly established medical school. The faculty is colored, the students are many of them white. Each professor has a maximum number of degrees following his name, and yet one of them on the petition to the state for a charter was obliged to sign his name by a cross, "his mark." This institution gives degrees in medicine, theology and philosophy. We cannot criticise the theological department, for that is not in our sphere, but the medical department has a large, private, out-patient clinic of patients, chiefly white, many of whom are charity organization cases, who are fully convinced that the doctors here have occult power, and

their devotion to them is sad indeed. They move so as to live near this school, attend its religious services, and even submit to major operations at the hands of its staff. The diagnoses made by these professors are those of the ancient demonology. Some of their medicines cost $1.25 a bottle, visit thrown in, and both cease when the money is not visible. Early consumption is "bronchitis" here and the chronic, far advanced case is deserted when the fee is not forthcoming.

In addition to these are the patent medicines so much in evidence on all sign boards and in the newspapers, and from the sale of which immense fortunes are made. It is fair to say that over nine-tenths of these are sold among the very poor; for instance, Consumption Cure at $5.00 a bottle for a family with an income of $6.00 a week, Brain Tranquillizer at $2.00 a bottle for an epileptic child in a family supported by the church. The poor are convinced that they are benefited by these remedies, and to persuade them not to buy them is often an almost hopeless task. With an ingenuity almost diabolical, using a perverted physiology and pathology, these remedies are advertised in such a way that they win the entire confidence of the poor consumptive or epileptic. The huge fortunes that the manufacturers reap are nine-tenths of them from the very poor, and hence indirectly from the churches and charitable organizations. I have good authority for the following statements. One wholesaler bought a well-known tonic in amounts of one carload a month. One carload means 600 dozen bottles, list price $1.00 a bottle, actual selling price to retail customers $.88. That represents sales of about $6,300.00 a month. The jobbers then agreed to sell none of this drug to cut-rate druggists and the sales dropped to 100 dozen bottles a month, or a drop of five-sixths the previous sales and about $5,300.00 in cash. This shows the importance of price in the selection of patent remedies by the retail customer. They have no appetite for, nor loyalty to any one drug. They want relief for their troubles and are willing to buy another which promises as much, if it costs a little less.

A well-known, widely advertised remedy for kidney disease is bought in amounts of one carload a month. This represents 37,080 bottles, the market value of which is $2,880.00. These drugs are sold to retail druggists in the poorest parts of this city and to the very poor, not nearly one-tenth in the other parts of the

city. These are the sales of but one wholesale house, of but two of a long list of patent drugs, and yet the money spent by the poor for these, nearly $10,000.00 a month, would equip and run a splendid dispensary. Of course the money spent for alcoholic beverages is vastly greater. That is another question. For instance cocaine is sold in rapidly increasing amounts in our large cities. In one city between $1,000 and $5,000 worth of this drug (depending on the amount of adulteration with milk sugar) is sold weekly. But the question before us today is not depraved appetites and vicious habits, but the honest efforts of the poor, to prescribe for their aches and pains. We believe the poor would stop buying these remedies if we could provide medical care in which they had confidence. The money of the poor is spent for these medicines first, that for clothes, rent and food is begged or provided by churches or charity organizations.

Of course it may be said that the well-to-do also are sinners in this regard. While we do not deny this or criticize the way they spend their money it is true to a much less degree, and the question for us to ask is, Shall we continue to provide the money that through the poor a few may become rich and the incipient cases lose their chances for recovery? We little know how much of our charitable funds are spent in this way. We pay for the food, rent and clothes of a family, which if it spent less in the above ways could buy these things for itself.

Such is the medical treatment which the poor man, if left to himself, will get,— that of the untrained man, the quack or the patent medicine manufacturer, all of whom are in every sense of the word "out for the money." Those who claim to be "practitioners for the poor only" are always open to suspicion if they are making money. It takes an expensive training to make a safe practitioner, and then the best can treat well but a limited number of cases each day; hence, it may be stated as a general rule, that a well-trained man cannot afford to treat the poor for what the poor can afford to pay him.

Proper treatment for the poor means charity in any case; they can never really pay for what they get. Experience has shown that a nominal fee is desirable. Our large clinics charge ten cents for a prescription, some twenty-five cents for a doctor's visit, but this trifle is in no way remuneration for service rendered nor do the poor look at it in that light. This little fee

insures that they take their medicine better, and they feel more interest in treatment if they pay what they can. They then consider the treatment as their right. Absolutely free treatment is not appreciated, as is shown by the cheap value they ascribe to the free advice of an Osler as compared to that of their "pay-doctor."

The question therefore is, how can these charity patients be best provided for? Many prefer to ask the better practitioners of the neighborhood to give their time gratis, and no profession, not even the theological, does as much hard, free mission-work as does the medical. Yet this method is unsatisfactory. Those practitioners best able, are the most willing, and also the busiest. They cannot follow these cases as they should be followed. This sometimes results in the neglect of a family which needs daily care.

We believe that the state should be more responsible for the care of its poor citizens when sick. It is for the prevention of disease, as in the case of smallpox and other infectious diseases. There is little danger of such paternal care pauperizing the patients, for doctor's visits and medicines seldom become a habit. (The question of sick diet is quite a different one.) The same "pauperizing" argument was used against free parks, free concerts, free libraries, and above all the free schools with free text-books. It is now not necessary for any one to pay a cent for excellent school education, for the very reason that the state wishes educated citizens, and we believe that the same effort to keep healthy citizens would help it as much and injure them just as little. We know of course the value of teaching a man to be provident and to lay up in health for time of sickness, but the loss of wages, even if all medical care be provided, is enough stimulant for one who has any foresight at all.

Many of our large cities are now divided into districts each with a neighborhood house. In these houses should be the offices of the charity organization societies, the instructive visiting nurse association, various other philanthropic societies and also of a doctor conducting a small neighborhood dispensary who is well paid to follow these cases to their homes. This physician should be a recent graduate of good standing in his class and one who now holds a teaching position in a university. Such an organic relation with his medical Alma Mater would result in the trans-

ference of all difficult cases to the university clinics, which would bear the relation of consultant to him. He would also free these clinics from a large bulk of the minor cases which now crowd them. The result would be satisfactory to all, but especially to the patient, for in isolated clinics and private practice the danger is that the unusual cases are not well treated.

The advantages of such a system would be the following: With such care possible more patients would get a good physician; fewer would be tempted to experiment with doubtful remedies; the sick who are unable to go to a dispensary would be provided for; the state would have a better check on epidemic diseases; many diagnoses would be made earlier, at a time when more curable; the patients would be followed in their homes; they would be better educated in matters medical, and lastly, much money as well as many lives would be saved to the poor, and large sums of money to the benevolent societies.

We wish to emphasize the importance of the district nurse, perhaps a more important person in the treatment of the poor than is the doctor, and whose visits are daily lessons in hygiene. The nurse working in co-operation with the neighborhood-house physician can do more in treating the poor, as well as in educating them, than the occasional visits of the doctor or any number of publications, exhibits or free lectures, all of which the poor seldom read or attend.

But these self-sacrificing women ought to be paid more, and not be allowed to accept as remuneration the satisfaction of having done well — yet this is sometimes quite satisfactory as in a recent case; the nurse visiting a consumptive of the middle class, found the sick room technique of isolation finely worked out. She found on inquiry that this had been done by a negro servant whom this nurse had taught some time before in a dirty home in a back alley. It is true that ideas rise rather than fall, that they diffuse upward from lower to higher strata of society much more readily than they percolate down from above. For this reason the education of the lowest may be the best way of reaching the upper classes.

But in conclusion, yon can furnish the best clinics and men and the "horse may not drink." To teach them to appreciate the medical advantages offered, we must depend on the friendly visitor to educate first themselves, then their families.

Unfortunately the poor are not very eager to be helped by advice, and it is their confidence we want. When a man has pain in the back and believes he has Bright's disease because the paper says so, if we wish him to give up a medicine which promises relief without fail, we must offer treatment in which he will have equal confidence — and since truth is our weapon, the problem is not easy. He sees these advertisements in the paper every day and on every other signboard. I know of no better offset for these lying advertisements than the visits of nurse and friendly visitor, who will slowly teach the poor a better way, get them to recognize the truth concerning their troubles and the place where excellent medical care can be obtained as free as possible.

This problem is really one for the Charity Organization Societies, for it is their money which, directly or indirectly, is wasted. It is they who must start free dispensaries where they are needed. It is their friendly visitors who best can bring the patients to them.

REQUIREMENTS OF HOSPITALS FOR THE TREATMENT OF CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

BY MATTHIAS NICOLL, JR., M. D., ATTENDING PHYSICIAN WILLARD PARKER HOSPITAL, NEW YORK.

I desire to preface these somewhat desultory remarks by the statement that they possess no official significance. My connection with the Department of Health of New York is solely that of attending physician in two of its hospitals. Nor should they be regarded as reflecting upon the competency of that body as at present constituted, since it is not, in any sense, responsible for the conditions which I feel called upon to criticize, which are the results of many years of civic lack of foresight and indifference to moral obligations. On the contrary, that department is performing under very adverse conditions, a vast amount of work in behalf of the physical welfare of the people.

I shall confine my observations to the City of New York because of my greater familiarity with conditions there and because the problems which arise in attempting to control the spread of infectious diseases, as well as to provide adequate means of free treatment for such caces, are common to all great

communities. The younger cities, less populous and fully mapped out, the towns which in course of time are to become great centers of population, may find a valuable lesson in studying the experience of New York City's attempt to solve this difficult problem. They will profit therefrom in proportion as they avoid the errors into which that city has fallen before it is too late to remedy them.

Hospitals for contagious diseases in thickly settled communities are needed, first, because in no other yet demonstrated manner may such diseases be kept under control and susceptible individuals protected from the various local epidemics which are almost constantly present. Second, to furnish proper treatment for patients suffering from contagious diseases who are unable to employ their own physicians and those who, because of the character of their residences, hotels, apartments, stores, and the like, become a source of danger to those about them.

Until a few years ago well-to-do patients were obliged to remain in their own homes or go to the wards of the public hospitals for contagious diseases, as no private institution existed where they could receive treatment. In 1897 the hospital for diphtheria and scarlet fever was established as a private enterprise and so fully has it realized the hopes of its founders that one is led to wonder how the city could have gotten along without it for so many years.

In arriving at the requirements of contagious disease hospitals, it will be necessary to enter somewhat in detail into the peculiarities of the several diseases and for the purposes of this discussion three only will be especially noted — diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles. Smallpox is of much less importance today than formerly, thanks to the very general belief of the more intelligent people in vaccination and the stringent laws which compel others to submit to it. Every city, however, should have a suitable hospital as far removed from the center of population as possible, for its complete isolation. So great is still the dread of this disease now happily almost eradicated from properly governed cities, that the report of a few cases immediately stirs up the authorities and people to great activity, with the consequence that its spread is promptly checked. Typhus fever, which occasionally occurs in small epidemics, should be handled in a similar manner. Typhoid may be, and is usually, treated in gen-

eral hospitals. Measles is probably only second to smallpox in contagiousness, few susceptible individuals who are exposed to it escaping. It is seldom absent from large cities and occurs in widespread epidemics at intervals of several years. It is usually regarded by the laity as a comparatively unimportant disease and one of the necessities of childhood, and this under ordinary circumstances is a fairly accurate conception of it. The death rate among children of the better classes from uncomplicated measles is practically nil, among the poorer classes even, it is very small when they are taken care of at home, but when complicated by other infections, as scarlet fever, diphtheria and broncho-pneumonia, the death rate is enormous and, furthermore, the fatalities among measles patients treated in hospitals as at present constituted, are at least ten times as many as among those treated outside of them. In children's institutions the disease is a veritable scourge, the death rate varying from 10 to 45%, and this from a malady which in our own children is regarded with comparative complacency.

Scarlet fever is not as contagious as measles and unlike the latter does fully as well in hospitals as at home. In poor quarters with inadequate nursing and uncleanly surroundings it is impossible to give the patient proper treatment. By removing those to hospitals who cannot be properly isolated, much can be done to prevent the spread of the disease throughout the community, and it would almost seem that in course of time, with very rigorous methods, it might become stamped out.

Diphtheria is endemic in all large cities. Much can be done and is being done by the authorities to keep down the number of cases and to afford proper treatment for those who become public charges. The death rate from it has of late years been greatly reduced by the use of antitoxin, and is very small in early treated cases in private practice and in such hospitals, as in their arrangement and equipment, furnish conditions equally favorable. In the wards of public contagious disease hospitals it is still terribly fatal, from one-sixth to one-quarter of all cases admitted dying.

In comparing death rates under varying conditions it must be remembered that public contagious disease hospitals have to deal largely with cases which under any conditions, however favorable to recovery, are much less resistent to the ravages of the

various diseases than those whose health has not been previously undermined by poor feeding, bad habits of life and unsanitary surroundings, but even these show decidedly better results when treated in their own homes than in public hospitals. Furthermore, the latter have to count in the fatalities those patients who are practically dying when they enter the institution for whom little can possibly be done, so that in one sense it is not fair to compare the results obtained in these institutions with those in private hospitals and private practice, where, as a rule, there is much better material to work on. If, however, we neglect these factors, and they by no means account in full for the great difference in death rates, and compare the chances of recovery of our own child treated at home or at a private hospital, with those of the child of the tenement who for one reason or another must go to a public institution, we shall find the facts about as follows. Our child ill with scarlet fever has twice the chance of recovery as compared with the latter, with diphtheria four to five times, with measles ten times or more. While these figures may seem exaggerated, they are founded on an analysis of a large number of cases and fairly represent existing conditions.

The laws of New York give the Department of Health almost unlimited power to enforce such measures as they may deem essential in protecting the city against the spread of contagious diseases. We are only concerned, however, with those cases which for one reason or another are sent to public hospitals. Among these are cases of contagious disease occurring in large institutions, especially for children in which there is no provision for their isolation and treatment; those occurring on premises which are used in part or whole for business purposes, small shops and the like, those in the homes of factory workers, and those which on account of ignorance or insufficient room or willful disobedience of orders become a public menace. The last are compelled to go, technically forced into, the hospitals. The others are given the choice of removing the patient to the hospital or of going out of business and are then said to send their children or other relatives "voluntarily" — not to my mind an accurate description of an act which is influenced by a choice between financial distress or actual want for the rest of the family from enforced idleness, and the severance of closest ties for many weeks, not infrequently forever. Finally, a certain number do

send their children voluntarily because of their inability to care for them at home or on the advice of a physician or inspector. But as a rule the first cry of the mother who walks into the clinic or hospital with a sick child and is told that it is suffering from a contagious disease and that it will be necessary to inform the Health Department is, "Will they take my child away?" In their ignorance, these people look upon the official physician in much the same way as a criminal upon the officers of the law; and I have heard the poor Jewish mothers of the east side, whose children form a large proportion of the hospital patients, cry aloud, and seen them beat their breast and head, praying to the doctor for mercy, modern Rachels weeping for their children and refusing to be comforted.

And now, let us see how these children are disposed of. In Manhattan Borough cases of diphtheria are taken usually by ambulance to the Willard Parker Hospital, but during the past year the latter has been closed for needed repairs and such cases have been sent to North Brother's Island, situated in the East River opposite the upper part of the Borough. Willard Parker Hospital is a brick building built many years ago and as at present renovated is divided into a number of fair sized wards, accommodating from a dozen to twenty or more patients in each. So-called sun parlors have been built outside of some of them, long, narrow, glass-enclosed structures which permit convalescents to get a certain amount of sunlight, but serve to keep the air from the adjoining wards. The surroudings of the hospital are worthy of notice. It is situated in the notorious gas house district at the base of a peninsula jutting out slightly into the East River. At the apex is the private contagious disease hospital already noted which has therefore preempted the best part of the ground. Back of the public institutions are the large stables, none too savory, of the Street Cleaning Department. To the south and separated by a narrow street the tanks of the Consolidated Company whence come night and day the fumes of illuminating gas. To the north are docks, coal and lumber yards. This, then in brief, is the location and character of one of the principal contagious disease hospitals of the second greatest city in the world. The Reception Hospital, situated in the Willard Parker grounds consists of a long series of non-communicating rooms built back to back and entered only from the

street. It serves as a temporary abode for cases other than those of pure diphtheria which are later transferred to North Brother's Island or smallpox which go to a special hospital in Brooklyn.

Scarlet fever patients will soon all be treated in a new six-story stone structure situated, however, on the undesirable grounds occupied in part by the Willard Parker Hospital. It is said to embody all that is modern in scientific hospital construction. North Brother's Island has during the past year taken all the diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles cases from Manhattan, The Bronx and Richmond Boroughs. They have been transferred to the Island by special boat from the Reception Hospital, often after long ambulance rides, and I need hardly say that this condition of things, unavoidable as it may have been, has entailed much additional suffering on parents by separating them widely from their children, whom by making a comparatively long journey they may see for a short time three times a week, and furthermore diminished the chances of recovery of the patients by frequent moving and the exposure necessary to such a journey. Arrived at the Island, the various diseases are separately treated in large wards containing from thirty to forty patients and usually situated in one-story pavilions. The Island is practically built up and there is little room for further construction.

Kingston Avenue Hospital in Brooklyn takes care of such cases as occur in that Borough and also those which arise among the immigrants at the Barge Office and all cases of smallpox. Some of the buildings are of recent construction. The death rate from the various diseases is, as I have indicated, for the other public hospitals.

The private hospital next to Willard Parker gets the river view and air on three sides. It has one pavilion for scarlet fever and another entirely separate for diphtheria, with a different corps of nurses for each. Each patient has his or her own room. Occasionally two are in one large room. Each room communicates with the outside air, is well lighted and of good size. An open air roof garden is provided for convalescents. The same regime, perhaps with a little more elaboration, is carried out as in the public institutions, and the results of treatment leave little to be desired. Thus, the last report shows something over 3%

of deaths from diphtheria and less than 4% from scarlet fever. Measles is not treated.

Here, then, are two sets of institutions — one public, the other private, having equally good medical attendance and nursing and, in the main, facilities for cleanliness, disinfection, etc. In the private hospital the death rate is equal to the best that can be shown by any private physician or institution. In the other, it is a blot on modern scientific progress. What is the cause of this? In its final analysis it may be stated very positively and briefly: Lack of air. No gift that Heaven has granted to man is so free as the air he breathes and none has been rendered so costly by man's gregariousness. Fresh air surrounding institutions in the first place and, still more important, sufficient air space for individual patients are the prime essentials for success in the treatment of these diseases. To this end there are needed spacious grounds permitting the erection of many pavilions sufficiently wide apart to ensure free circulation of air between them and to prevent cross infection. Where twenty are now treated the number should be one-half dozen or less, especially in the case of measles and diphtheria, of which it may truthfully be said that two in one room is a crowd. And, finally, the immediate isolation of complicated cases from the non-complicated and the convalescents from those who are in the active stages of the disease. In very large cities there should be as many of such centers for isolation and treatment as are necessary to do away with the cruelty involved by transportation of patients over large distances.

The difficulties that communities find in establishing proper institutions are due to the hostile attitude of real estate interests, the perfectly natural prejudice against contagious disease hospitals of those living in the vicinity, (although it has been established that, except in the case of smallpox, they are never a source of danger to the surrounding dwellers,) the high price at which land is held in cities, political and other organized opposition and, finally, the lack of knowledge on the part of the public of existing conditions.

Such plans as I have mentioned will doubtless require a great deal of land and a great deal of money, but the younger cities should remember that once farms could be bought on Broadway at reasonable prices. The people that legalize the

seizure and isolation of these patients can find a way if they will to provide proper accommodation for their reception.

Public sanitary regulations will, to the end of time, bring up the question of the rights of the individual as opposed to those of the community and probably to the end of time the individual without influence will have to give way. But let those of us who are benefited by these necessary laws not forget that their enactment is daily and hourly causing suffering and unnecessary death among the helpless children of the poor, and build and conduct our public hospitals in such a manner that people of every class will gladly make use of them until even the ill-conditioned children of the poor may have a little more than a fighting chance for life.

STATE AND MUNICIPAL CONTROL OF TUBERCULOSIS.

BY MAYZCK P. RAVENAL, M. D., ASSISTANT MEDICAL DIRECTOR PHIPPS INSTITUTE.

The attitude of the authorities, State, Municipal, and National towards the tuberculosis problem is one of the anomalies of our age at the present time. That the annual loss of 150,000 of our citizens from a single disease which is known to be communicable, and therefore, preventable, should be allowed to continue almost as a matter of course speaks badly for our civilization.

Disraeli once said "the health of the people is the first duty of the Statesman," and no argument is needed to sustain such a self-evident truth. Do our authorities measure up well judged by this standard? Alas, No. Every one who has had any experience in attempting to obtain appropriations for the care of the army of consumptives will agree with me in saying that money is given very grudgingly for such purposes. This is mainly due to two causes, which are closely related to each other.

(1) The authorities are accustomed to having consumption in the community, — it is an old story, — it is well known and excites but little fear or interest.

(2) It is for the reason just stated extremely difficult to make them understand or believe the terribly distressing nature

of the plague which blights every community, and I had almost said, every home in our fair land.

Very recently a portion of our country has been visited by a dread calamity, which has been followed by the spontaneous outpouring of money for the relief of the stricken people. Something like fifteen million dollars have been contributed in less than two weeks, and our National Government has voted without debate two and a half million dollars. I do not criticize this, — it is as it should be, and I rejoice in it. Curiously enough, San Francisco is one of the two cities in the United States which have the largest death rate from tuberculosis, and the loss of life by the earthquake was approximately one-third of the annual death rate in that city from consumption. How long would we have to beg to raise even one million dollars to fight consumption in San Francisco? What would Congress say to an appeal for funds for such a purpose? I fear that more than an earthquake will be required to awaken our people, as well as our statesmen, to the duty which is at their door in fighting the Great White Plague.

In the crusade against tuberculosis, three kinds of institutions are useful and necessary.

(1) Dispensaries. The function of the dispensary is the care of those who for some reason are unable or unwilling to leave home. They should be distributed so as to be easily accessible to the mass of people, in mill and factory districts, and in the centres of population. Suburban dispensaries can also serve a useful role, reaching those unable to travel into the city. Dispensaries serve as places of registration for the sick, where advice as to rules of life and instructions as to proper disposal of sputum are given. They should supply receptacles for sputum for use when at work and at home. They should, if possible, aid the poor in obtaining proper food.

They should supply printed rules to patients telling in simple language how to avoid spreading contagion, and how to get well. They should give advice as to entering Sanatoria and Hospitals, and look after those who have returned from sanatoria.

(2) Sanatoria are best of two classes — those for purely incipient cases, where a speedy cure may confidently be expected; and those for more advanced, but still curable cases. In conjunction with sanatoria, convalescent farms are most desirable,

where those who cannot be longer kept at sanatoria may lead an open air life, and engage in more or less light work for a certain time, earning their support, and hardening themselves for return to shops, mills, etc.

(3) Hospitals for far advanced cases, where every comfort is given to the incurable, while taking him away from home or tenement where he would otherwise be a fertile source of danger to those about him.

The educational function of all institutions is most important, and should be a marked feature always.

In order to derive the maximum benefit from such institutions, health officers should have power to control those consumptives, who through vice, carelessness, or ignorance menace the health of others. It should be within their power to commit such persons to a hospital and keep them there as long as the physician in charge thinks proper. This authority is exercised now in regard to small-pox, diphtheria and other diseases the death rate from which all put together does not nearly equal that from tuberculosis.

Within the past ten days in this city (Philadelphia) there has been the most extreme exercise of authority by the Health Department. Because a single case of small-pox was known to have entered the city, a section, said to contain about 15,000 inhabitants, was roped off by the police, and compulsory vaccination performed on all who fell into their hands. Yet in this same city the Health Department makes not even a perfunctory effort to enforce the existing ordinances against spitting. One cannot pass along the corridors of City Hall leading to the rooms of the Health Officers without being disgusted by the quantity of sputum on the floors. It is hard to understand why this difference of feeling exists. We need not only broader laws but Health Officers who are awake to the necessity of enforcing those already in existence.

The importance of registration of tuberculous cases has been urged so often that I will content myself here by endorsing its value to the fullest extent. With registration should go the periodical disinfecion of rooms occupied by consumptives, and after a death the house should always be thoroughly cleaned and disinfected. After removal of a consumptive, new tenants should not be allowed to occupy a house until cleaned and disinfected.

Would it pay to carry out the above ideas? Tuberculosis causes a loss of three hundred and thirty million dollars yearly in the United States. A far less sum spent in the suppression of the disease would work wonders and each succeeding year the cost of prevention would grow less. Private charity can do much but the problem is one for municipalities and States to cope with.

THE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY OF THE VISITING NURSE IN THE PREVENTION OF DISEASE.

BY MISS CHARLOTTE A. AIKENS, SUPERINTENDENT COLUMBIA HOSPITAL, PITTSBURG.

In undertaking any work it is a good thing to know what you are aiming for. The people who aim at nothing in particular usually accomplish nothing in particular. What are the aims of the twentieth century visiting nurse? What is she trying to do?

In undertaking to answer that question I settled on these objects:

To relieve present suffering and discomfort in the homes of the poor.

To teach by precept and example how to properly care for the sick poor and how to prevent disease.

To study local conditions and people and institute such measures as are possible to improve them.

At the outset I would plead for a clearer recognition of the dual nature of the educational work to be done. On the one hand is the work done by the nurse with the people in the homes visited; on the other the education of the public conscience that must ultimately result in better living conditions for small wage earners and the annihilation of at least some of the plague spots, the hot-beds of disease that exist in every city. The one work must be done by the nurse, the other requires the united and the individual effort of the society that she represents. Until the study of local conditions is seriously undertaken by the directors no Visiting Nurse Association has more than half fulfilled its

mission. There are Associations that seem to believe that their work consists mainly in raising the money to pay the nurse and making the regulations under which she works. Until an Association has outgrown that stage it can hardly be counted as a great force in social progress.

Then, too, I would plead for emancipation from our bondage to figures. If we are going to accomplish much on educational lines we ought to outgrow our fondness for enumeration. The number of visits of any charitable worker is certainly a very poor standard by which to judge of success or devotion to a cause.

In attempting to utilize, and to teach others how to utilize the educational opportunities of visiting nursing, I have been impressed with some difficulties and some weak points about our American way of managing visiting nursing, that I wish to bring before you in the hope that someone may be able to suggest remedies and improvements. A few illustrations will show what I mean. My experience with visiting nursing, has for the most part, been gained in connection with hospitals having a visiting nurse department. Discharged hospital and dispensary patients were visited and calls from any source attended to. In teaching the nurses, I have always emphasized the importance, of being on the watch for opportunities to teach and preach the Gospel of fresh air and sunshine, cleanliness, proper methods of caring for the sick and right methods of living generally. Seven or eight years ago I thought every need discovered, constituted an opportunity. Now I am by no means sure of it. Webster says an opportunity "is the suitable combination of conditions for executing a purpose." Please keep that definition in mind. In the days of my inexperience, my theories got a rude jostle when one of my nurses came to me and said, "What can you hope to teach when you find a family of eight living in one room, and discover that they take in boarders besides?" "Where are you to begin?" I have asked myself that question many times since. I had to confess then that I did not know and I have to confess to-day that I do not know. That happened in beautiful Washington. I have the satisfaction of knowing that a lot of other people's theories about Washington have been jostled too. But that does not answer the nurse's question. Someone may say, "That is an extreme picture." It is extremely common. The

boarders are not always in the foreground, but they are very frequently there.

Practically the same conditions can be duplicated over and over in Pittsburg and Allegheny, and in smaller and larger cities East and West. It would be interesting to know how many one room homes the visiting nurses touch in the course of a month. How much educational work ought we to expect a nurse to do in a one room home, occupied by eight people without the boarders? How much of an educational opportunity is presented there? What permanent results have we a right to expect? Palliative work we may do. Sickness can be made less dreadful. A measure of comfort may be secured. Here and there a seed thought may be dropped that will take root. But how much can we expect to teach, for instance, about personal cleanliness or domestic cleanliness under those conditions? We are pretty generally agreed that cleanliness is next to godliness. We must also admit that it is closely related to virtue and self-respect. Where the conditions that make for cleanliness and virtue and self-respect are wanting, I seriously question the existence of an opportunity for real educational work.

Since my theories got such a rude upsetting in Washington some stirring up has been done there on the question of blind alleys and their accompanying evils. I have secretly cherished the hope that a law might be passed prohibiting a family of eight, who live in one room, from taking in boarders, especially while the mother of the family was sick in that room. I have dared also to hope that our legislators might get some of their economical theories upset. And I have wished they might set a better example to the country at large as regards measures for the prevention of disease, than to ever repeat the blunder of making the appropriation for the disinfection of infected homes, so small, that for two months of the year no funds are available for such work in the capital city of the nation. How much educational work ought we to expect a nurse to do in an infected house with no funds available to help in preventing the spread of disease?

You are all probably familiar with the story of the little girl and the settlement worker. The teacher gave the little girl a picture and told her to take it home and hang it on the wall. "But please, ma'am," said the little girl, "We ain't got no wall. You see it's like this, there were four families living in the room

when we moved in and they had all the wall. We live in the middle and we ain't got no wall." Any visiting nurse who has tried to do educational work without a "wall," will tell you that it is mighty discouraging business. How much educational work should a nurse be *expected* to do without a wall? The very first step in the prevention of disease is the keeping up of a normal resistive power. To begin to *teach* people who are already sickly and stunted morally and physically, people who have never known what it was to have a quiet spot to say their prayers in if they wanted to, people whose whole life has been spent in close contact with men, women and children of all ages, to even talk of educational work or permanently improving habits of life, in places in which we have not provided breathing space or elbow room, carries with it to me a suggestion of hopelessness. Even if we educate people up to the point of seeking better homes, what have we gained if another family moves in as soon as they move out? Where should the educational work in such homes begin? What is the best place for the visiting nurse to attack the problem?

I have been proud of the work of the experiment stations in Washington. I have even indulged in the wild extravagant dream that sometime in our generation those experiment stations that have given such diligent study and issued splendid bulletins on such subjects as, "How to raise good cabbage," "Tobacco culture," "Hog-raising," "Pig management," "The Angora Goat," and a hundred other similar subjects, might sometime extend their field of operation. I have wished they might take up questions like these and experiment with them, "How to raise healthy and pure boys and girls in the homes of the poor in our large cities." "How many human beings to the square foot of land may we expect to reach a full physical, mental and moral development?" "How can the population be distributed so that every child born in this free country, may come into possession of at least two or his rights — good air and elbow room?" If we want to know how to raise good cabbage, these bureaus of research will promptly supply us with full and free information. They will tell us about the kind of soil needed for growth, how far apart to set the plants and how to prevent the heads being injured by parasites. If we want to raise Angora goats they will send us special free bulletins to tell us how to go about it. But in our capital city

and other cities, human beings are born and live and suffer and die, herded together like animals, while landlords reap a profit of from 15 to 40 per cent. from rented hovels. Let us not waste much time talking about the educational opportunities presented by those conditions. Let us apply ourselves a little more seriously to the question of how to effect either renovation or annihilation.

It does seem as if in addition to providing visiting nurses and relief of all kinds, that we ought, even if it is depressing, to get squarely face to face with the real problems that confront us. We ought to keep always in view the larger aspects of the businesss on hand. It might save us from wasting a lot of energy on useless tinkering later on.

One of the discouraging points about the educational work of the visiting nurse is that it so often must cease when good progress is being made. In few organizations is it possible to follow up the nurse's work, however well begun. A writer in one of the magazines, not long ago, threw out the suggestion that some visiting nurses did a good deal of visiting, but not much nursing. This doubtless is true in some cases. It is not generally true. But the fact remains that a good deal of visiting of a certain kind needs to be done by somebody, if the good work of the nurse in many cases is to result in permanent improvement. Let me illustrate: The young Swedish mother, whose sole idea of preparation for the little life committed to her care, had been to lay in a lace bonnet and a paper of safety pins, with which to dress the baby, lived in Philadelphia. She was cared for at the time of the baby's arrival by a visiting nurse. The baby died at its birth. The mother made an uneventful recovery. There was not the slighest excuse for the nurse to continue her visits after two weeks, even if she had plenty of time. The patient did not need nursing after that time. She certainly did need intelligent visiting. Does anyone suppose that improvident habits and ignorance and hereditary tendencies can be overcome by magic in two weeks? The young pupil mother was responsive and grateful, but she was a child in knowledge in how to live. If we could have a "follow up" system in every district in which a visiting nurse is at work we would have more lasting results from the nurse's work. Who ought to do this "follow up" work? Apart from a settlement what is the best way to manage it? Has anyone a plan or system to propose?

Even at the risk of being considered critical or pessimistic I am going to mention another weak point. I have not overlooked all the strong points nor the encouraging features nor the splendid work that is being done, but I would like to know how we may strengthen the weak points and make good our deficiencies. In comparatively few organizations is it possible to send a nurse to assist in the care of patients suffering from contagious diseases? Very many cities provide no isolation hospital, except for small-pox patients. The visiting nurse as a rule does not take contagious cases, not because she is not willing to, but because she is not allowed to. She ought not to visit such cases and go about indiscriminately. Therefore the cases whose need is the most urgent, are dropped from her list and the less serious ones retained. The young foreign mother, inexperienced and untaught, and likewise many an American born mother, surrounded by a little family stricken with measles, diphtheria, scarlet fever, or any of the acute contagious diseases, certainly presents a splendid opportunity for the visiting nurse to get in some educational work. But we have not eagerly or systematically embraced the opportunity. We have thought about it. We have considered the difficulties, and justified ourselves frequently by regarding difficulties as reasons for neglect. As a matter of fact difficulties are hardly ever *reasons*. What will we do about it in the future? It has seemed to me that the time was ripening for some general movement along this line, — a movement that would mean an extension of the influence of the visiting nurse to rural districts — a movement that would mean care for just such cases. Is it too much to hope that we might soon have a National Visiting Nurse Association, with State Associations in every State in the Union, with one broad general system and plan of operation? Is it too much to hope that we might have for free distribution all through each state, leaflets and literature dealing in simple language with each of the common communicable diseases? In other words, might it not help the cause to have an organization whose business it was to organize visiting nursing, whose business it was to study the whole field — the needs, the points of least resistance and how to meet the same — an organization that would effect some kind of affiliation between existing societies and thus increase the strength of the movement. When we find three or four societies doing visiting nursing in

a city, each of them with one visiting nurse, it makes one think that we need a charity organization society to investigate and find out what is the matter.

An organization of nurses alone will never do this work. If it is to be done, it needs first of all a broadly representative organization. These problems are not nurse's problems exclusively. If such an organization were to be effected in the state of Pennsylvania, think of the educational opportunities. Think of the immense industrial plants of this one great state, of its quarries, and its mining villages dotted all over it, to which foreigners of every nationality are crowding in, of its cities and towns, many of them without even one visiting nurse.

The last report showed thirty-six visiting nurses at work in Pennsylvania. Thirty-six visiting nurses in a population of six millions certainly does not suggest an over crowding of that class of workers. Do you think it is within the realms of possibility to increase that number within a year to forty-six or even to fifty? If so, how shall we go about it? Is there any way by which we can extend the work of the visiting nurse to some of the mining regions this coming year?

One of the main objects of the Queen's Jubilee Institute for Nurses, in England, has been the establishment of nursing centres, which should be at the same time educational centres. One result of being organized on a large plan, has been that many a poor woman in the remote country districts of Ireland and Scotland, has had the same benefit of skilled nursing that she would have had if she lived in the heart of the city of London. And the nurse in the little Irish village is not alone. She is not an isolated worker. She has back of her the great organization. She keeps her records and does her work according to a general plan. She has behind her the force of a great movement that is ever widening and growing stronger. If we expect the largest results from this educational work in the prevention of disease, we must broaden our horizon; we must draw larger plans and organize for larger things.

There is another kind of educational work that I would like to emphasize. I have no hesitation in saying, that I believe if there were more visiting nurses there would soon be fewer cripples on our streets. We meet these cripples grown or growing to manhood and womanhood, stunted in growth, handicapped for

life, from causes that in childhood might have been remedied, causes that would have been remedied if anyone had found the child in time, and educated his parents as to the possibilities of cure. If more were known about orthopedic work more would be done about it. If the little crippled child, the child with club feet or spinal curvature or tuberculous hip-joint or imperfect development can be located in time and brought out into the light, I have enough faith in the American people to believe that they will find the means of correction. And for locating crippled children, I know of no better agent than a wide awake visiting nurse in a district. When she has succeeded in bringing about the necessary change of mental attitude in the parents, so that they are willing to allow the child to be cut, if need be, in order to cure him, she has accomplished an educational work of no mean value.

It has seemed to me that if in some way, more attention could be given to the teaching of simple practical physiology and hygiene to the present and coming generation, it would be a sensible way of preventing disease. Whether a visiting nurse ought to attempt this work is a question, but it certainly ought to be done, and she could help in various ways, especially with mothers. She as much as anyone is in a position to appreciate the need of such instruction, to plan for it and interest others in it. She knows just where to go to find the people. Perhaps I am mistaken, but I believe that it should be as much the function of the visiting nurse society to nurse health as to nurse disease. Florence Nightingale particularly emphasized the nursing of health, and it really seems to be quite a sensible way of preventing disease. We in this country, seemed to have largely settled down to the idea that prevention of disease means waiting for something to develop, and then preventing its spread. We would not think of allowing anyone to run an engine without first demonstrating in some way his knowledge of the machine, and how he would manage it, but we are still content to see human beings go out on life's road, to run the complex human machine, in absolute ignorance of physiological laws, the keeping or the breaking of which means the difference between health and disease. When these machines break down we have any amount of apparatus and people to patch them up, and plenty of splendid repair shops. But it would seem to be rather more economical to do more preventing and less patching.

I am inclined to think that too little importance is attached to the keeping of records in some Visiting Nurse Associations. I do not mean keeping simply such items as the number of visits or the names and addresses and diseases of patients visited, but the securing of definite facts about the conditions, habits, occupation and the various other points that may have a distinct bearing on the disease of the particular patient and on the general health of the community. If the conditions that are a menace to health, are ever to be corrected, some educational work must be done outside of the homes of the poor, and on a different set of people entirely. Effective educational work in this direction must be based on definite information that cannot be secured in a moment. If we expect our principles to be accepted we must be able to back them up with facts and show concrete illustrations as reasons. The preparation of history blanks, and the systematic keeping and filing of records, is a piece of work that is as important in a visiting nurse society as in a hospital. Here again is shown the need of a general organization and a general plan that will help new associations to start out right.

In spite of the campaign of education that has been carried on against tuberculosis, it is still true that thousands of our people each year perish of consumption, largely from lack of knowledge. We know that they are perishing in the cities, partly because of bad environment and overcrowding, but they are perishing in the villages and in the country, not from overcrowding, not from lack of fresh air and good food, but from lack of knowledge. After we have succeeded in building sanatoria we know that but a very small per cent. of all cases can avail themeslves of sanatorium treatment., The war, if it is successful, must be carried on in the homes in which the disease originates. We need for this work an army of visiting nurses. We need also more activity in some other quarters. Some of the few visiting nurses, who are giving themselves to this work, find their efforts handicapped by the inactivity of Boards of Health, and the lack of any law requiring the thorough renovation and disinfection of infected homes. After a death or two from tuberculosis a family will move out, but another family, ignorant of conditions, moves in and succumbs to the same disease. I am not much given to boasting of woman's achievements, but I expect everybody to agree with me that if there were some visiting nurses and some

other energetic women on some Boards of Health there would be better house cleaning done and more of it. I feel perfectly safe in making the offer, that if the men will give us the authority and the money we women will manage the house cleaning of such homes, and make a better job of it than a good many Boards of Health have done. There is a great educational opportunity right there. I would like to see writ large over the office door of some Boards of Health the forgotten or neglected commandment, "Thou shalt not kill." A tuberculosis infected house is just about as certain to kill as arsenic, given a suitable combination of conditions. It may be a slower process and a rather more genteel way of killing, but it is reasonably sure.

One other weak point about our visiting nursing system in this country, and one that influences greatly the educational work, is the lack of a training school for visiting nurses, to which nurses can go to be tested and trained. I would particularly emphasize the need of *testing* — of a probationary period, if you please. Some nurses go into the business just to see if they will like it. Others go in because it gives them a living, or because they don't like private nursing or for some similar reason. Many a woman goes into it, prompted by the highest and most unselfish motives, and finds she has been honestly mistaken when she thought herself fitted for it. She finds, or somebody else finds, that she cannot measure up to the demands and she goes out, and the Association get some other nurse just as inexperienced. Some Associations go through this experimenting process every few months. They are always initiating new nurses, who must learn the ways of the people, and the ground, and the methods in general and we wonder the work does not grow faster. This is not the special fault of any Association. It is the fault of our American system, our lack of organization along this line. The Victorian Order of Nurses, in Canada, has a training school and a four months' testing period for hospital graduates. The Queen's Institute, in England, takes six months for this work. In that time a woman who has gotten into the wrong place can find it out, or the authorities can discover it. If we are to have the largest results from the educational work of our visiting nurses, ought we not to teach them how to do educational work? The teachers of our children are taught how to teach. But the nurse who is expected to deal, not with the easily moulded child mind, but with adults steeped

often in superstition and prejudice, the nurse who in order to be successful, must know how to diagnose the real trouble and see the remedy thereof, who must combat deep seated habits, who must constantly deal with people who do not know that they do not know, and who are not eager to know, — the nurse who must do *this* work is not taught to teach. We have depended pretty largely on a nurse's own native ability and intuition as to how to manage situations. The school of experience is a fairly good school, but usually very expensive. Ought we to depend on it much longer in this work? In new organizations especially, the nurses are the real leaders of the work. Many a nurse has thrust upon her the responsibilities of leadership without any preparation for it, and we wonder she does not make better progress.

Every now and again we hear of the overcrowding in the nursing ranks. Perhaps in some places the bottom is crowded, but there is no great crowding at the top. There is no great crowding in this branch of the work. There are vast possibilities of expansion in visiting nursing in this country. If nurses already trained to nurse, could be given the training and testing, in visiting and teaching, and set at work here and there in the cities, and towns and villages and rural districts where needs are great, there would not be much crowding for some time to come. How can we accomplish this? What we greatly need is a larger vision of the possibilities of expansion of visiting nursing, an active faith that will get us ready to use the enlarging opportunity, a firmer conviction of the value of our work and the courage to attempt larger things.

VII.

Charitable Finance.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY FRANK TUCKER, VICE PRESIDENT OF THE PROVIDENT LOAN SOCIETY, NEW YORK, CHAIRMAN.

The Problems of Charitable Finance have come before this Conference for consideration and discussion broadly in two groups, upon one of which much greater emphasis has been laid than upon the other.

For years we have discussed policies for the use of public funds, raised by taxation, in the care of the dependent, deliquent and defective.

These debated matters have not been brought before us under the heading of charitable finance but are readily recognized when stated as discussions on subsidies, government by volunteer boards or appointed salaried officials, on Boards of Control with administrative and financial responsibilities or State Boards of Charities with supervisory powers only, on civil service protection for employes, on fixing the powers of superintendents and stewards, and on influencing standards of administration that give adequate result for the money expended.

These are the problems of Charitable Finance that grow out of the use of public funds, the taxpayer being a forced contributor without power to stop his contribution if he does not like its application, and able only to influence its use through helping to mould public opinion that will cause those in public office to form their policies in accordance with the best knowledge available.

Upon this group of financial problems, under other titles, the National Conference has exerted an influence that has undoubtedly been felt in almost every state in the Union.

For the first time we are now to take up and discuss the problems of finance which grow out of the work of those organizations which appeal directly to the public for support,

* Discussion on Charitable Finance, p. 568.

where the contributor gives voluntarily, sometimes through conviction, sometimes through impulse, sometimes thoughtfully, often carelessly.

It is here that we find ourselves face to face with situations which demand that we shall restrain the unwise giver, suppress those who skilfully make use of the charitable impulse for selfish purposes, as well as educate communities upon their responsibilities for contributing to support charitable and social activities that are struggling to better conditions.

To understand the problems of charitable finance we must first realize that a charitable or social activity, supported by voluntary contributions, is, in effect, a self-perpetuating function of trusteeship.

A social need or condition is discovered in a community; it may be to care for the sick, to feed the hungry, to find work for the idle, to shelter the orphan or fight against child labor.

In time a group of people find themselves mutually interested in the need or condition; they organize; a governing body is elected; officers are chosen; an executive and staff are appointed.

The organization is ready to begin work and then the problems of finance and administration begin.

The organization thus created by interested knowledge of needs and conditions is an intermediary, a trustee, standing between those who have a surplus and those who from whatever cause are on the wrong side of the ledger of life.

The function of trusteeship thus set up must do two things to justify its existence — it must raise money by convincing the public of its responsibilities for needs and conditions and it must expend the money so raised in such manner as to warrant the public in believing that the investment is sound and productive of social profit.

It is between these acts of raising an income and expending it that we find the problems of finance and administration that we hope to discuss for our mutual benefit.

The necessity for discussion, the necessity for precedents and standards that may well be established by this Conference, is painfully apparent to one who follows closely the frequent scandals growing out of false interpretations of the responsibilities

of trusteeship in our social activities, or who knows of the waste of money and energy in unstudied efforts to raise an income, or who reads annual report after annual report and finds no adequate statement of cost and result.

It is increasingly evident that with the great growth of our charitable and social activities we must have discussion which will define the responsibilities of those who assume membership upon governing bodies, which will point out what is expected of those elected as secretaries and treasurers, what the relations between governing body, executive and staff should be, what are legitimate and effective methods of appeal for funds, the value of a budget, the necessity for an adequate financial statement, the wisdom of a professional audit, the importance of being ready at any and all times to account for and justify at the bar of public opinion, policy, cost and result.

We are living in a time when the world demands knowledge of its social and economic interests. It asks for facts upon which it may form its independent judgment. Glittering generalities in statement of performance will not do. There must be a statement of the thing to be done, a defined policy to accomplish it, a record of result achieved, a known measure of cost, and an understanding of the sources of income.

It is not the purpose of these introductory remarks to deal with any particular phase of charitable finance or suggest remedies for administrative problems that are at the root of financial conditions.

We have as members of this Conference representatives of societies and institutions that are models of organization and financial administration. They have experience and wisdom to impart. There are others who come here burdened with difficulties for which they seek solution. In making up the program of this section it has been our aim to lay a foundation of topics upon which, through discussion at this and other meetings, there may be built up a superstructure of precedent representing a crystallization of the best experience, for the common guidance of all.

PHILANTHROPY AND ACCOUNTANCY.

BY FREDERICK A. CLEVELAND, PH. D., NEW YORK.

The members of this Conference may not be accustomed to thinking of Philanthropy in terms of Accountancy. Dealing with human factors, you have perhaps found little, or no, interest in figures. Nevertheless, for an apostle of finance it may not be considered inappropriate to say, that your sums, whether they have to do with human integers, or with human fractions, must be finally solved by the logic of the Counting House. Application is made to the office of Philanthropy for relief; you at once send out an agent to take off an individual balance sheet, an individual income-statement, and an analysis of the individual deficit-account. Philanthropy which is not preceded by such an investigation, is considered as worse than wasted.

The records from which your data are drawn, are found in the faces, the hearts, and homes of social dependents. The symbols read and interpreted by you are hunger, pain, and disease — the dwarf child, the tear-worn face of the mother, the hopeless and inebriate father. The quantitative and qualitative emblems interpreted and summarized by Philanthropy, differ from those of Accountancy; but the methods employed for obtaining results are much the same. The professional accountant proceeds from the point of view of the administrative problem of an institution, and looks toward the individual welfare of the stockholders. The professional philanthropist proceeds from the premise of the social problem, and looks towards the individual welfare of the component member of society. In each case, the remedy is applied to existing conditions only after a careful analysis of results reported. Administrative reform looks toward increasing industrial efficiency; social reform must have in mind an increase of physical, mental, and moral force, that the deficit in the individual income account may be transformed into an earned surplus on the individual balance sheet.

Accountancy has to do with institutional pathology. Philanthropy has to do with social pathology. Having before it ideals of healthful social activity, philanthropy applies concepts of normality to the pathological aspects of social life. The philanthropist as philanthropist, is not interested in man as indi-

vidual; he is not primarily concerned with individual insanity or disease; neither does he feel that duty calls him to a consideration of the moral pervert as such. These subjects lie within the professional field of the physician, the clergyman and the teacher. Those who devote their lives to philanthropy, regard temporary incapacity with an eye to the restoration of the individual to normal healthful activity in a society co-operating for common well being.

But aside from analogy in method and purpose, Philanthropy and Accountancy have a very direct relation — in fact one which requires direct co-operation. In a society like our own, philanthropy must deal through institutions, and organically takes on corporate forms. It has estates to be administrated, and corporate functions to be exercised and controlled. Administrative control is the professional field of accountancy. The ideals of administration by which it is guided are, fidelity, economy, and efficiency; it holds itself out as a professional adviser, willing and able to prescribe the methods by which administrative control is to be attained and exercised, in order that these institutional ideals may be realized. It is this, the institutional aspect of Philanthropy, to which this paper is especially addressed.

PHILANTHROPY AND CORPORATE TRUSTEESHIP.

The suitableness of corporate organization for philanthropic work is readily perceived from the briefest statement of its characteristics. A corporation is a legal person empowered to receive and hold property for its beneficiaries, but with no power to use or dispose of the same, except through duly appointed agents or trustees; through these, all corporate activity must be carried on. Corporate activities, therefore, are premised on personal fidelity; and corporate estates are protected by rules of law, which hold these trustees to a strict account.

The beneficiaries of a commercial joint stock corporation are persons (or their assigns), who have directly contributed to its capital, in exchange for shares. In order that one or more of the shareholders may not receive an inequitable share of the benefits of corporate association, no one is permitted to control its property or its policy, or to distribute its profits, except those delegated to act in a representative trust capacity for all con-

cerned. A further protection is found in the legal provision that no business may be transacted except by an entirely different set of trustees, known as officers. As has been before pointed out, there are, in such a corporation, three forms of institutional control to be exercised: (1) Proprietary control, exercised by stockholders through the choice of a Board of Trustees. (2) Board control, to be exercised through the appointment of officers and through the making of rules prescribing their duties and limiting their powers. (3) Administrative control, to be exercised by those who are charged with the details of the business transacted by the company.

A Philanthropic Institution differs from a commercial or joint stock company chiefly in this: that the element of proprietary control is wanting. In such a society there are no stockholders, and therefore, no proprietors to whom the Trustees are required to report; there is no one by whom the acts of the Trustees are to be reviewed before new representatives are elected. Those who have contributed property or funds as a foundation for benevolent work, usually relinquish all beneficial rights in the estate, and leave the management to a self-perpetuating Board of Trustees. Their duty it is to direct the affairs of the society and control its officers, in the interest of a class of social dependents, for whose relief the society was organized. These beneficiaries have no claims which may be enforced, neither have donors any guarantee that the terms of their gifts and bequests will be complied with, except such guarantee as is found in the integrity and accountability of the Trustees.

Without a body of proprietors to call them to account, the Trustees of the Benevolent Society have a much greater responsibility than the Directors of a commercial joint stock company. To add to the sacredness of this relation, the corporation itself is made a Trustee, with rights to enforce the will of the contributors on one hand, and with a duty to protect the beneficiary interests on the other. By such a Trustee, these rights and duties are enforcible in Courts of Law, but their enforcement depends on accounts and reports which will give to officers and directors, as well as to donors and beneficiaries an intelligent view of administrative results.

THE VIEW OF THE PAST.

In the past, Corporate Trusteeship has been too lightly regarded. It has been customary for religious and philanthropic enthusiasts (as well as for designing promoters) to seek out men of reputation for stool pigeons to sit on corporate boards. This has been done to attract the attention of the benevolent public, and to inspire confidence while soliciting contributions. When asking persons of prominence to accept such positions a definite pledge is frequently given that no demands will be made on their time in attending to the affairs of the Society. It has not been uncommon for a single person to hold places on many of such boards, at the same time giving practically no thought to the business of any of them. This is little short of dishonesty. The control of such a Society is usually dependent entirely on the personal attention of its Trustees. Relying on the sense of duty which should reside in trusteeship, donors contribute to an estate in which they retain no controlling right or interest; and these sacred obligations have been accepted by persons knowing that all general powers of direction and control are in their hands.

Quite as remiss is the man who accepts a position on a Board of Philanthropy as an honorarium — or in order that he may occasionally spend a pleasant hour, and have his name associated with persons who have attained honor and distinction in literature, business, or public life. These motives do not comprehend the first thought of respect for duty and personal integrity; nor do they admit of a more favorable interpretation than the act of one who, being unmindful of his trust, permits his own servants to waste the estate of another that has been left in his care and keeping.

Another type of corporate infidel is found in the officer, who, being in executive position, uncontrolled by his Board — or what is still worse, supported by a self-perpetuating Board of his own choice, comes to regard himself as a proprietor and chief beneficiary of a philanthropy that looks to the public for support. This type is still found in certain educational, reformatory ,and charitable corporations. Such an officer spends hours trying to educate the public not to give to individual beggars, but considers himself licensed to beg without feeling under any

obligation to take the public into his confidence, or even to render an intelligent account of his stewardship. In response to demands for information, he will answer that the trustees have no interest in details, and that the public is not entitled to knowledge with respect to the inner workings of his organization.

A NEW IDEA AS TO CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY.

The public demand for more light on matters of trust is not limited to Life Insurance. This craving for facts pertaining to institutions is a manifestation of a general awakening which requires that those holding positions of trust (whether they be officers of government, or of transportation and investment companies, or members of boards and officers of benevolent associations) shall be held to public account. There is a disposition to ferret out the moral pervert and the institutional parasite, whatever be his station in life. Especially is this true in connection with institutions organized in the interest of public welfare. The demand of the time for personal fidelity, for economy of human effort, and for institutional efficiency, applies to the millionaire as well as to the pauper. And these are qualities which require an intelligent basis for the exercise of judgment on the part of those in possession of controlling responsibility, whether this judgment be that of citizen, of stockholder, of voluntary contributor or of the trustees and officers of institutions supported by taxpayers, stockholders and voluntary contributors.

This new demand comes not from a diminishing standard of individual honesty, as has sometimes been urged, nor by reason of a decreasing sense of personal honor. It comes from the higher ideals of social duty; from the constantly increasing personal responsibilities incident to broader institutional life. In a society so complicated in its fabric as our own, so comprehensive in scope (industrially, financially and politically) there is an ever increasing need for control — in order that those who work with fidelity for common ends may be protected; in order that economy in group activity may be conserved; in order that personal efficiency may be rewarded and that such as are inefficient may be marked for replacement by those who are able to contribute their share to co-operative production; in order that there

may be a proper regard for the larger duties and responsibilities on which institutional growth and general welfare depend.

In a philanthropic institution, such an ideal requires that the employe shall be under the administrating control of the officer; that the officer shall not only keep a complete and accurate account of the administrative activities for which he is responsible, but that he shall also render an intelligible report of the same to the Trustees; that the report as rendered shall not only speak in terms of details as to funds received and funds disbursed, but also shall give an accurate measure of the full range of institutional achievements. It requires that the administrative data should be regularly and currently collected through departmental accounts, and reported in such manner as to inform the Board with respect to the economy and efficiency of functions performed. Going a step further, this new idea as to responsibility requires that the board shall not only assume responsibility for the general direction of the Society's affairs, but also make a full report of its activities and finances both to contributors and to the public for whose benefit the institution is maintained.

THE RACE IDEAL OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTROL.

Intelligent institutional control presumes administrative knowledge of the minutest details; it presumes that all judgment and directive action proceeds from such knowledge. Our highest ideal of administrative account and personal responsibility is not the dream of a prudist, nor the dogma of the reformer; it is found in the moral and religious culture which dominates the race. As man has looked out on a universe of countless worlds, he has contemplated the spheres as they swing through millenniums of time and an infinity of space — driven onward by immeasurable force, yet each controlled by other forces which bend their paths and shape their courses in such manner that planets, suns and satellites move on in perfect order. Considering this magnitude, the complexity of substance, of force, of form, (a cosmos so great that it may not be comprehended or probed by instruments of sight) all moving under such complete control that our astronomers may calculate the tides, the eclipses, and other cosmic phenomena with certainty for centu-

ries to come, we have the best race concept of control that is possible for the human mind to grasp.

Following the tenets of religious belief this control is held to be a personal one — our religion centers on personal responsibility of the creature (the servant) to the Creator (the master). The power which impels is conceived as Almighty; the hand which controls without mischance — this, the race regards as Omnipotent. But with the concept Omnipotent our notion of cosmic administration is not complete. The hand which shapes and determines the destinies of the Universe is conceived to be guided by an Intelligence as great as it is powerful. We call this intelligence Omniscience. *Omnipotence! Omniscience!* One element is still lacking. *Personal responsibility of every creature to a common Creator!* These are the elements essential to the race ideal of control and responsibility.

Whatever may be our religious faith, this race concept has in it a very direct bearing on the social problem before us — the great problem of institutional administration. Human association and institutional life, broadening, widening, becoming more complex, is gradually coming to comprehend a wider range of facts. In some of our co-operating groups we have already spanned the earth. Individual intelligence, however, is limited to the senses. To know, we must taste, touch, smell, hear or see. Our intelligence in institutional control must come through these senses. The possibility of individual direction must depend on the person in command being able to bring the acts of all persons co-operating within the range of his faculties of perception and of reason. Under primitive conditions this was simple — it required no organization other than that provided by nature itself. The one in control was able to hear or see each employe and keep in personal touch with his every act. No intermediate controlling device was necessary unless it be to aid the memory and to lay the foundation for better judgment as comprehended within the wider range of experience. But under modern organic conditions original perception must come through others. Its certainty must depend on some intermediate accounting device which will accurately record the acts of every person and give such logical summary of results as will place before the administrator a digest of experience which may be used as premises

for highest administrative reason and the best directive control. This fact, the philanthropist has not yet fully perceived. He receives millions in funds, and accepts responsibility for the management of large estates, in many instances, without feeling it incumbent on him to adopt methods which will enable him to discharge his duties with highest honor or to extend relief to the maximum number within the class whom the philanthropy administered by him is intended to reach. He has not yet come to appreciate the truth, that business principles should be applied to the business side of the trust in his hands.

MAKING THE BUDGET OF A CHARITABLE ACTIVITY.

BY WILLIAM R. PATTERSON, PH. D., NEW YORK.

A budget is a statement of probable income and expenditure — a financial proposal for a fiscal period. In short, it is a business plan toward which all must work, and to which all must conform. It has a degree of certainty, but it is not absolute. As the architect's plans, it may be varied if new conditions arise or more mature judgment makes a change advisable. It does represent a careful canvass of the entire situation by the administration of the society; an analysis of the needs of the community and a decision of those in charge. This statement is made without introduction, to the end that the meaning of the word "Budget" as used in this paper may be understood.

After considerable inquiry, it appears that a popular saying of the day might be paraphrased to the effect that every financial activity has a budget except the philanthropic. The hand to mouth existence they have so often led is the cause usually assigned for this situation. It has seeemed inadvisable to waste time planning an imaginary banquet or to decide the relative proportions of a castle in the air. In a vague sort of way, the Lord has been expected to provide, but whether the bill of fare was to be manna or locusts and wild honey the Societies have not dared to presume. The real reason for the situation lies deeper; it is fundamental to voluntary work of a relief nature: it is that our charitable activities have felt themselves to be a sort of first aid to the financially injured or socially plague stricken. Re-

cently, due to deeper study of the problems before them, a change for the better has been noted in the more progressive, but the idea of emergency aid is still prevalent and in many instances dominant. This is the path of least resistance. It renders analytic thought unnecessary and permits appeals to a class of contributors whose purse-strings are governed by their lachrymal glands — the greater the flow of tears, the more money. The street beggar recognizes the same principle — the Societies have merely followed in his foot-steps. In short, the necessity of the moment is dominant, rather than the needs of the period; the work done has been that of cure rather than prevention. This conception of the purpose of charitable activity naturally communicates itself to the public and results in a variable revenue. Contributors have been approached only when some grim example could be held up for exhibition. This Exhibit "A," in murder trial parlance, has been the magnet used to attract funds; to the tender hearted and sympathetic the story has been told in all its phases, the apparent purpose being to produce shivers and qualms, that funds might result. The result was to be expected. The horrible example was necessary or the money was not forthcoming. Plans were only possible when the emergency came, and the relief of the emergency was the only plan possible. Money contributed to avert a coal famine must be applied for the purpose contributed, moreover, it was necessary that it all be applied for that purpose, irrespective of the amount needed. The work of the agent and the trustees related chiefly to the application of funds. They organized the corps of assistants, passed upon the applicants, and later reported that the money was all spent.

The present budgetless situation is again due to a misconceived idea on the part of the administrative officials of their function. These officers look upon themselves as representatives of the contributors. As the political representative is supposed to carry out the wishes of his constituents, so the philanthropic representative performs a like service for the members of the Society. This makes their position that of disbursing agents, and as such they attempt alone to formulate plans for the economic expenditure of the funds entrusted to their care. This, however, is really the minor part of their work. In the crash and push of competitive forces; in the mad race for supremacy; in an age of profit-taking as against profit-making; the relations

of man to man become so complicated that an adjusting force is required. The nervous strain of the conflict weakens the body to a point where recuperation must be provided. The success of the winner in the conflict leads him to forget the needs of his unsuccessful competitor, and some agency must remind the one and assist the other. Just what these particular competitive features are is not germane to the present discussion. They differ in each community, and it requires a special study to determine the needs of a given point. This study the trustees should make and their conclusion should point the way of a given effort in a given community. It is not enough for them to disburse funds; it is theirs to discover the need, announce it, and so fortify their statement that the contributing public will see and understand. Our philanthropic activities are largely forerunners, they pioneer and finance until some central authority takes up the work it has neglected. Witness the housing reform, vacation play grounds, night schools, public baths, public lectures, advanced treatment for those suffering from tubercular diseases, all initiated and financed by philanthropic activities and now taken up by the municipality.

The problems of the philanthropic activities to-day are not problems of the care of applicants, but those of initiative. It is not the problem of feeding the poor, caring for the sick, and encouraging the opppressed, that we need worry about, but the problem is how to bring the Board of Trustees and the public into closer touch with the work of their particular activity. There is more danger of over feeding than under feeding to-day. Do not misunderstand, the poor, sick and oppressed are in a sense wards of these agencies. My point, however, is that the Board of Trustees and the public need education and enlightenment. If my limited observation is correct, there are many Boards in a semi-comatose condition, and it may further be observed that their secretaries are not always anxious for their restoration to vigor.

To remedy all this the budget is offered and a high place is claimed for it among "cure alls." But to be effective it must be thoroughly rubbed in. Its virtue is not in its artistic make-up, odor, or flavor. Everything in its composition must be there for a reason, and that reason adequate to the Board and the result of thorough discussion. As in the application of other remedies,

so in this, the patient must be in the proper psychic condition. It must realize that it is handling trust funds and that, as frequently pointed out by others, the contributors have no proprietary interest and exercise no proprietary control over those entrusted with the direction and administration of the activity. The task is an extremely delicate one. Legacies and capital funds, restricted or unrestricted, must be utilized under conditions the donor did not anticipate, and current contributions find their most useful application. Granted these conditions and given our tonic, we may look at its workings.

The first step in the preparation of a budget is an enumeration of the several sources of income; the second a selection of the objects of expenditure; the third a determination of the probable amount to follow each item.

The most logical step in the preparation of such a statement is to look over the income and expenditure for the past year. How much was received from unsolicited sources? How much from appeals, membership fees, investments? What was the expenditure for rents, salaries, postage, car fare, stationery, fuel, light, heat, clothing for poor, etc.? Propound such questions to your neighbors or your own activity and see how satisfactory the replies received will be, or you will be able to give. Such questions would embarrass a large number of secretaries or agents and their answers would bring surprises to many boards of trustees. How much did it cost to send out appeals last year? How much did each one bring in? Why were the returns so different? Was the request improperly made or had it no basis to start with? What shall we ask for this year — Why? The judicial member upon the board believes we should agitate for a law that will punish deserting husbands, the sympathetic member believes the money can be best spent to give deserted wives and families a week's outing at the seashore, and the less æsthetic member, who desires to be considered practical, would supply them with fuel and groceries.

What is the answer to all these questions and a hundred others? They must be answered if the budget is to be prepared. As soon as you venture to prepare a forecast you are forced to give an accounting of funds and present a balance sheet that will show the assets and liabilities of the activity and the items to the debit and the credit of the community. You will be forced to put

your resources over against the community's social liabiilties. The answer to the question, Shall we take up a given new work—as for example, the care of deserted wives and children, is two-fold. First, are we financially able to? That is answered by your financial statement. Second, is it of sufficient importance? And that is answered largely by your record of cases. These are the chart and the compass of the vessel the board has agreed to captain, without which the craft is a tramp racing aimlessly about at every signal of distress. The wonder is that business men will act in behalf of a society under conditions they will not tolerate in their own business. The business man of to-day would require before him a statement of the financial status of the activity, a definite showing of the assets and liabilities to date, and a current statement as to income and expenditure. On the side of income he will expect to see capital receipts, that is revenue derived from capital funds such as interest on endowments and legacies, rents, etc.; the amount given or subscribed for capital uses; the sum or sums contributed by state or local authorities for the erection of buildings, equipment or other permanent purposes. Over against this will appear capital expenditure, showing the amount expended for betterments and improvements to the lands, grounds, buildings, apparatus, etc.; the sums disbursed to meet maturing obligations incurred for capital uses. The balance of this to debit or credit will show the increase or decrease in the permanent resources of the activity. A further statement as to income and expenditure for current uses would be required. This would itemize the amounts received from subscriptions, appeals, entertainments, fees for use of the activities, privileges, and payments for services rendered. Against this, in like manner, would appear the current expenses of the society, salaries classified as to the division and kind of the work; the cost of fuel, light, supplies, etc.; amounts expended to carry on each of the several branches of the work. Full information as to the work of the various divisions of the activity would doubtless be required. How many cases treated in a given branch, what result obtained in another? Statements of this character are in evidence in successful business enterprises and without them no intelligent budget can be prepared.

With reports of this character before them the Board will be able to ask pertinent questions and gain some idea of the effici-

ency of the activity. It will appear if some branch is requiring a heavy outlay with slight result, or some source of income falling behind. With fixed expenses as rent, salaries, etc., clearly set out, we may reasonably expect that they will be scrutinized and the questions of the policy of the society relative to the erection of buildings and the securing of added rooms receive discussion, to the end, perhaps, that permanent revenue producing quarters, the property of the activity, may be obtained, or that endowments may succeed small current contributions.

The difficult portion of the work, however, still remains, namely, to find new sources of income and to appropriate the surplus above fixed expenditure to the needs of the activity. As to new sources of income, it may be safely said that there is in every locality a fund of latent energy that is never discovered, and, it may be added, a great dissipation of the discovered force in its application. The persons are few in number who will not gladly aid in doing something that should really be done for the community. Our wealthy people employ secretaries to enable them to find out what is needed. They welcome the knowledge of a real necessity. We venture the assertion that the philanthropic activities of to-day are not only getting all the money they are entitled to under the present method of administration, but much more. Last winter I was urged to contribute toward the supply of five hundred Christmas dinners for the poor. This was in a most prosperous community of 9,000 inhabitants, where actual applications to the city for aid numbered less than 50 per annum. Moreover, the money was raised and persons making from $40 to $50 per month were insulted, (as I should call it) by the offer of a Free Christmas Dinner to the Poor, while some who did accept came shivering to the feast. It would have been far wiser in many cases to have purchased a few dozen suits of underwear and a number of top coats, but it would not have sounded as large as "Five Hundred Dinners to the Poor." It is possible that in large cities similar things are done, not because they desire to make paupers but because they desire to assist, and not being advised of a better plan, give inadvisedly.

I am fully aware that there are many activities that want money and that many of them are meritorious. The situation in some respects is the same as in the commercial world. The problem is to bring the product to the notice of the purchaser

or the need to the attention of the would-be contributor. The merchant who succeeds does not pile his goods in a jumbled mass before his customer, but makes careful arrangement and studies well their qualities. The head of a most worthy institution went to a noted philanthropist of Chicago to obtain funds to carry on his work, and was told to go home and find out what he needed, and why, and he would be glad to talk to him. The advice was taken in the spirit given, and a year later the gentleman returned and received a large donation. This latent resource awaits the activity that has a board of trustees keen enough to discover what should be done, and wise enough to give reasons for its doing.

In the seeking of these new sources of income in the determination of objects of expenditure, the board needs every possible assistance. Statistics have done wonders in bringing about proper judgments, and would do more if a certain class of people would let them alone, or take them more studiously. It must be borne in mind, however, that tabulated records are helpful, suggestive and necessary, but not alone conclusive. You cannot dispense with the thoughtful, painstaking effort of a body of officials alive to the possibilities of the situation, and seeking honestly to do what is needed, rather than merely to do *something*.

It, therefore, appears that no rules can be given whereby the amount to be expended for a line of work may be determined. The officials with the reports previously mentioned before them, must judge whether results have been proportionate to outlay, and in what manner changes shall be made. The rule to follow is to attempt its preparation, and if not "all things shall be added unto you," at least some of them will.

The making of a budget for a philanthropic agency is a refining process; it brings the dross to the surface and purifies the entire activity. New vigor within itself will result, as each division will understand that its work will be reported upon and its results compared with its outlay. Where a carefully laid plan is to be followed, we may expect a co-ordination of effort that will result in increased efficiency. But prime among the benefits to be derived, is the education of the officers of the activity that will result in the application of business principles to the reports and work of the agency, to the end that the public may be advised of the real needs of the community, and come to appreciate

that when an appeal is made, it is for a purpose that has back of it real reason, the results of a study of the work done, as shown by the reports of the activity and the mature judgment of a conscientious group of officials.

METHODS OF RAISING FUNDS FOR A CHARITABLE SOCIETY.

BY WALTER S. UFFORD, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE BALTIMORE FEDERATED CHARITIES.

At the outset the writer of this paper must disclaim the possession of any expert knowledge on the important subject under discussion — how to successfully finance charitable institutions. As general secretary of two agencies closely affiliated under a scheme of federation, with joint employes, meetings of joint committees and of boards of managers in joint session, perhaps his experience is more diversified than that of some executives of single-headed organizations.

Let us consider our subject from two points of view, namely, that of the paid administrator and that of the volunteer board. We assume that the work for which appeal is made is one which has a legitimate place in the general charitable scheme of the particular community, that the society or institution is worthy of generous support. This being so, the first business of the executive is to see that there is proper economy and management, that the annual budget is carefully and thoroughly prepared and that every item therein is capable of clear justification. This annual budget is the basis of expenditure and appeal. It should be prepared with the same care with which a business house makes its estimates for the year, each item being intelligible and capable of reasonable explanation to the finance or executive committee of the organization. Experience teaches us that no one method of appeal is applicable to the whole community; that there are many minds and many interests to whom appeal must be made; that in charity work many methods must be used in order to reach successfully those who make up the well-to-do population of our communities, whether they be great cities or small towns. Take, for example, the work of societies

such as our Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor. In the appeal which they make for funds to be used for material relief they have the advantage of approaching the public on its sentimental side. They make use of the primitive instinct of self-preservation. Hunger is a common experience; hunger for want of means with which to buy food, therefore, quickly arouses sympathy. This fact may be utilized by a relief-giving society in the use of printed appeals of a more or less circular form, for an organization which furnishes food to the hungry, fuel to the suffering and clothing to the naked. Forms of fresh air charity present another group of activities that finds a prompt response under modern conditions, including the congested living conditions of our great cities, the growing love of country life and its indulgence among the well-to-do, and the vacation period which is looked upon as a right by so large a portion of employes of business and commercial houses. The desire to allow others to have in a measure what we enjoy ourselves, lies at the base of a large proportion of charitable giving. Thus successful charitable financiering depends very largely upon the knowledge of the psychology of givers. The well known generosity of the poor to the poor springs from the fundamental motives of self-preservation quickened by intimate contact with the hard and sordid conditions of life in the congested sections of our great cities.

To the uses and limitations of the printed appeal some reference has already been made. There are appeals and appeals. The stereotyped form is familiar, but it has long since been discouraged by those who make a study of how to reach the pocket nerve of contributors. The printed appeal issued annually to those who are already numbered among the contributors of a charity will meet with a fairly proportionate response. With many it is sufficient that they be approached with an annual reminder in the form of a letter that they gave the previous year to the society and are requested to renew their contributions. This is the method relied upon very largely by the Baltimore Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor. In December, the annual report of the year's work, which ended September 30, is sent with treasurer's envelope and subscription slip inclosed. This goes to all who have contributed

to the Association for the past five years. As these reports are delivered by hand within the business and residential section, we are able to verify our mailing lists and to eliminate from them any who may have died or removed from the city. This sort of appeal is sufficient in the case of the A. I. C. P. to bring a response, say, from one-third of its contributors of the previous year. Then, in midwinter, when living conditions are hardest for the poor and givers have brought home to their own experience the need of warmth and shelter and proper food, the Association sends out a mimeographed letter with return envelope and donation slip to all who have not responded to the annual report. The past year we tried this experiment: On this letter was pasted a clipping of a paid advertisement inserted just before the appeal went out in the columns of a leading morning paper. This clipping was also pasted upon several hundred private mailing cards cut to the size of the ordinary postal and of the same texture, it not being permissible under the mailing regulations to use the regular postal card, and this was mailed to those who had contributed within five years, but whose contributions had not been renewed in 1905. The postal was also sent to a selected list of other persons. This scheme seemed to work well, partly because of its novelty, and partly, probably, because it served to bring to people's direct attention something which had appeared in the columns of the daily papers. On the first of April the Association had failed to receive from those who had contributed within the same period the previous year about 10% of such contributions. For these the Association has been accustomed to use a collector.

This brings us to the place of a collector in charitable finance. Here again the sensitiveness of response on the part of givers has to be taken into consideration. The Charity Organization Society of Baltimore, unlike its colleague, the Poor Association, has found it necessary to use a collector throughout the year. This collector works upon a salary and not upon commission. The salary basis is less open to criticism, as it does not meet with the objection that a certain proportion of the amount received is to be subtracted from every contribution. The method of the Baltimore C. O. S. is briefly as follows: At the beginning of each month, notices in the form of a mimeographed letter signed by the chairman of the Finance Committee

and containing return envelope addressed to the treasurer, are sent to all who contributed to the Society in the corresponding month of the previous year. After waiting a few days the Society's collector, a woman who has been employed for several years, visits all those who have not responded, except a certain few large contributors whose contributions certain members of the Finance Committee or Board of Managers undertake to secure. It is our experience that about one-third of the contributors to the Society, respond to the monthly notices and that two-thirds wish to be seen. How much of this is due to a local custom which the Society has apparently accepted and how many of the personal calls might be obviated by education I am unable to say. It is a method, however, employed by many of the local charities and the remark is not uncommon among contributors that a donation worth having is worth coming for. Those who make the remark do not apparently consider the additional expense involved in this method of securing donations. It has one distinct advantage, provided the collector is acquainted with the work of the organization, namely, that of meeting objections or criticisms and thus keeping the central administration more or less in touch with public sentiment, as such sentiment measures the work and value of the organization. The fact, however, that the Poor Association is able to dispense with the services of a collector, except for two or three weeks in the year for delinquents, while the Charity Organization Society working in the same city and under the same executive finds it necessary to employ a collector, makes me believe that the different method employed is made necessary by the varying degrees of appreciation on the part of the community of the value of the work of the two organizations, that the knowledge that the money given to the Charity Organization Society will go into a general treasury to be spent for salaries and administrative expenses, makes the response to the printed appeal less general and prompt.

There is a great difference between using a collector to reach those who have allied themselves with the work of the organization in previous years and the use of a collector to secure new and first contributions. This after all is the crux of the whole matter. Your experience and ours are probably much the same that the average life of a contributor is about five years, that each year from fifteen to twenty per cent. of

new givers must be found in order to make good losses by death, removals and other causes. How to make good this twenty per cent. which does not allow for the expansion of the work of the organization is the real question. Our Federated Charities have this winter been making an experiment following the example of the Boston Associated Charities. As you may know, the Boston Society a few years ago employed Dr. Philip W. Ayres to organize a plan for securing new contributions from the business interests of the city. Two or three business men who understood the whole situation and knew the work of the Society, were asked to choose a list of about forty of the most prominent business men in Boston from whom a business men's committee might be organized. The names of the gentlemen selected were printed on a circular under one sentence which read as follows:

"Believing that the Associated Charities reaches effectively the lives of needy families in Boston, and that it has increased the co-operation and effective action of the other charities of the city, we approve its plans for a larger support."

The circular contained also a brief statement of the aims of the Society. Dr. Ayres, describing the methods employed writes as follows:

"We sent out with this circular a personal letter to every firm in the city, taking a few at a time, whose business was rated in Bradstreets at $100,000 or over. With the circular and the letter went a small book in which the leading subscribers were entered from time to time by a clerk. I had two bright Harvard men to help me and it took about six weeks of hard preliminary work in September and October in getting a card catalogue of our firms, arranging them for detailed work by localities and comparing them with every philanthropic list in the city that we could get hold of, to learn what charities, if any, the members of the firm were interested in. On our trips we took these cards with us in order to refresh our minds before going into the place, what the charitable history of the firm or any of its members, had been. In this way one man could see about ten firms in a day, making a special study of each one and going repeatedly if necessary, until he got at the head man. Often the contribution was written in the book, with the check, and we did not then have to see him."

As a result of this canvass the Associated Charities received about $8,000. By reference to reports of the Society and con-

versations with Miss Higgins, I learn that most of these donations have been continued in successive years. The collections having once been organized have since been made by a young law student on a small percentage basis.

We in Baltimore have been trying this Boston plan with certain modifications during the past few months. A Business Men's Committee was organized on the lines followed in Boston. Twenty-three names were selected and invited to serve on the committee, including the Secretary of the Navy, the Governor of the State, Mayor, Chief Judge of the Supreme Bench, President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and leading financiers and merchants. It is interesting to note that all the gentlemen who were asked to serve accepted and signed the paragraph of indorsement used on the printed appeal. This appeal was made in both the name of the Poor Association and the Charity Organization Society. Our circular was accompanied by a letter signed in autograph by President Levering of the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor and Dr. Ira Remsen, President of the Johns Hopkins University and of the Charity Organization Society. The same sort of subscription book was used as in Boston, but we did not make as systematic a study of lists of contributors as was made by Dr. Ayres and his helpers. Neither have the results in Baltimore been commensurate with those in Boston, less than $1,000 having been received at the time of writing, after a three months' canvass. It should be understood that the collector, however, approached people who were giving to neither organization and thus our field of operation was more limited than the Boston field. Moreover Baltimore is not comparable to Boston in wealth. If we subtract the negro population, we have a city not much larger than Buffalo. But the value of the experiment is two-fold. It is educational, the collector is able, when granted interviews, to present the claims of the two societies and to meet objections and criticisms. We have met with one surprise, namely, that while we were prepared to give a choice to the contributors as between a relief society and a society for organizing charity no one at the present time has chosen to give to one in preference to the other, and all contributions have been to the joint work of both.

NEWSPAPER APPEALS.

The attitude of the press toward a given charity is important. Those who read the New York dailies must have noticed the generous space given to the appeals of certain local charities, notably the Charity Organization Society and the Bureau of Charities in Brooklyn. In Baltimore, the columns of the leading evening paper and one of the morning papers have been used for similar appeals by the Charity Organization Society and with good results. By citing specific instances of need of a more or less typical character, the Society is able to specialize. Here, too, one is able to take advantage of a psychological characteristic of the human mind that a single instance brought home is often of more value than multiplied illustrations of a general character; that one needy family next door appeals more strongly than thousands of famine sufferers in India or Japan. As to the use of the daily papers for paid advertisements, others can speak probably more favorably than I. The Baltimore Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor has for many years been accustomed to insert such advertisements in all the daily papers at the time of its mid-winter appeal and also has of late years used the paid columns of the daily press for a special sick diet appeal in the month of May. Seldom has it been possible to trace direct results to this kind of general advertising. However, as already stated, the advertisement of the past winter was turned to account by having fac simile copies of it cut in the form of a clipping and circulated with a letter of appeal and upon postals. Thus the advertisement was brought to the attention of those whom it was specially desired should be reached and good results followed.

THE MAILING LIST.

The basis of all appeal work of course, is the mailing list. The nucleus of this list consists of present contributors and those who have contributed within, say five years. For general circular appeals this mailing list should be supplemented by generous use of lists of contributors to other charities, names of those who have used the Society without contributing to its support, Blue Books or social registers, and club lists; also memberships of trade bodies, men of affairs composing the directorates of financial

institutions and corporations. In the sick diet appeals issued by the Baltimore Poor Association in the spring, six thousand of which are usually sent out in the form of a printed circular, citing brief histories of patients to whom the diet has been furnished, the telephone books of the city have been used to a limited extent, determined by those having house telephones in the better residential sections of the city. It goes without saying that it is of vital importance that such mailing lists should be subject to continual revision and pains should be used to eliminate duplications, names of deceased persons and those who have removed from the city. In Baltimore the fact that five or six hand distributions are made during the year of annual reports and the quarterly numbers of the Charities Record, delivered to business firms and residences of contributors, makes possible one means of keeping the mailing list up to date. Such a great disaster as the conflagration in Baltimore in 1904 made the work of keeping an accurate mailing list particularly difficult and we are still suffering from the effects of the fire in this regard.

All that has been said thus far regarding the machinery of charitable finance relates to the work of the paid officials of the Society. It is impracticable for the chief executive to give anything more than general supervision to the financial work as a whole. In the nature of the case he cannot become a personal solicitor on any extended scale. It is his business to follow with as close attention as possible the lists of contributors, to keep the Board of Managers, finance and executive committees informed of the state of the treasury and to present financial needs of the organization, to keep in touch with current popular opinion, to organize the work of the Society on an educational basis and to give all possible and proper publicity to its work. But over and above all this is the necessity for a strong backing of the board of managers. This backing will express itself most effectively in the work of a finance committee. With this committee must rest if not the actual shaping of financial policies, at least the careful consideration and approval of such policies. This committee should hold regular meetings at least once a month that it may be fully conversant of both the financial needs of the organization and of all measures taken to meet these needs. The work of personal solicitation is strongly distasteful to many

persons who are so constituted that they feel as if they were asking for themselves when they seek a contribution for the Society in which they are interested. Only by persuading ones self that one is performing a public service of an unselfish character can one put himself in the attitude of mind successfully to approach those of his own business circle or social sphere. But if new friends are to be won for charitable work among those who are able to give in large amounts, much of this pioneer work must be done not by paid servants of charitable societies but by social and business associates. The proper organization of a finance committee, therefore, is the key to the entire situation. The moral support which this committee can give the paid executive is of great value. Their knowledge of persons in the community and how best to approach them is a great help. Their suggestion of names of new persons and as a last resort a personal letter of introduction or better still, personal appeals or calls by members of finance committee — all these are means to the end. The knowledge that a busy man of affairs who has no ends of his own to further is willing to devote time and thought and to make a personal appeal, which to so many is distasteful, will often bring a contribution from one who would refuse absolutely to see a paid collector or who would throw unread into the waste-basket a circular appeal.

When one considers the multiplicity of appeals received by the average business man and thinks of the efforts that are being made by so many charities to secure adequate financial support in a given locality, one cannot fail to ask himself if much time, thought and effort is not wasted that might be conserved. Do we not need a financial clearing house to assume responsibility for the support of our local charities? Let there be in every city and town a representative body or committee to review annually the charitable needs of the community. Let this committee receive and act upon all separate budgets of existing charitable agencies. Let it issue an annual appeal showing the amount of money needed by each charitable society, that this appeal be sent to every household and all business firms in the community. Let the committee publish a list of contributors with their contributions, giving each contributor the option to say where and in what proportion his money shall go. Let the committee divide pro

rata, according to the budgets approved by them the remaining undivided contributions. Let the committee's campaign be an educational one and so aggressively carried on that it shall be considered as much of a disgrace as tax dodging on the part of the residents of a city or town not to contribute to the support of its charitable work.

Let this committee also pass upon the merits of existing charitable agencies, seeking to co-ordinate their work, to reduce duplication to a minimum and before admitting to its list of beneficiaries any new organization let it be clearly demonstrated to the satisfaction of the committee that the field which the organization proposes to occupy requires its presence.

This is no untried scheme. Our Jewish friends have demonstrated that it can be made a success. Under a Federation of Jewish Charities, donations and subscriptions have been increased in Chicago 33%, in Boston 40%, in Philadelphia 50%, in Detroit 100%, and in Cincinnati, the Pioneer of this movement, from $8,000 in 1896 to $33,000 in 1905. Here in Philadelphia, $95,000 for Jewish Institutions was raised the year before Federation, with the Charity Ball, and in the year after $121,000 was raised without a Charity Ball. And one of the beauties of the plan is the doing away with fairs, banquets and entertainments in general as money raisers.

A somewhat similar plan has been tried in Liverpool and in at least one American city, Denver. The Liverpool scheme however combines a joint appeal with individual appeals. The joint appeal is made in January and February and thereafter the separate charities are at liberty to make personal appeals, which seem to be necessary. In Denver there is a joint fund made up of an appropriation by the city and private contributions. This to my mind is an unfortunate alliance.

No city, so far as I am aware, has consistently applied the federated plan of a joint appeal only, to finance its Gentile private charities. Here is a chance for some bold spirit to make history, for the rest of us to follow or to avoid.

THE FINANCIAL HISTORY OF THE NEWARK BUREAU OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

BY MINA C. GINGER, FINANCIAL SECRETARY OF THE BUREAU.

The first period of enthusiasm and vitality of the Bureau — the period during which it received its largest support and was doing its broadest work dated from 1884 to 1894.

INCOME OF THE BUREAU FROM 1884 TO 1906.

1884			$3,323 49
1888			2,677 12
1890			3,337 27
1891			3,296 00
1892			3,161 00
1893			2,968 00
1894			3,025 00
1895			2,980 00
1896			2,842 50
1897			2,718 00
1898			2,822 00
1899			2,517 00
1900			2,796 00
1901			2,704 81
1903–04	including fund for indebtedness.	$5,242 66	
	including fund for relief.....	1,168 49	
			6,411 15
1904–05	General Fund	$4,915 92	
	Relief Fund	1,775 87	
			6,691 79
1905–06	General Fund	$7,503 11	
	Relief Fund	1,781 41	
			9,284 52

There were three districts with separate agencies and agents. The Superintendent's enthusiasm decreased and the vitality diminished until the work was brought into one office. For a period of ten years the work was largely confined to investigation and the prevention of fraud, i. e., rather the negative than the positive side of the work was emphasized. The interest of the public waned and there was a gradual decline in support, the funds got smaller and smaller and very difficult to raise. During that time the Directors raised the money from contributors who

gave year after year. There were no new contributions in ten years.

The second period in the society's financial history was when the Board finally let go the Superintendent who had been in charge of the work for sixteen or seventeen years and brought in a new man. There were many difficulties facing the new Superintendent. He came from a society where the Directors raised the money and he had but to carry out the purpose of the Board, to a society where the majority of the Board of Directors had ceased to attend the meetings or to interest themselves in the work. The Treasurer, although one of the oldest members of the Board, had exhausted both interest and enthusiasm in the work and had become pessimistic. A highly trained collector was employed who secured forty or fifty new contributors. He met with this success practically without the help of the Board of Directors. The Board was unwilling to give him letters of introduction, active backing or help. In the meantime special funds were raised for two or three purposes; delegates were sent to the National Conference and expenses paid by special fund. There were also delegates from the city and on their return to Newark they made a report at a public meeting presided over by the Mayor. Funds were also raised to pay for an investigator and Provident Savings Collector.

The current expenses were going on just the same and the income from month to month was not enough to meet the need. The office staff was the last on the program, the workers had to wait for their salaries until they were long overdue — to wait two or three months was a common occurrence, the Superintendent had the same experience to go through monthly, until it became unendurable and he threatened to leave — it was then that the Board which in the meantime was gradually changing its personnel, undertook, of its own initiative, to raise money because of the possibility of losing the Superintendent. Circular letters were sent out and a public meeting held; the result of this was four or five hundred dollars with ten or twelve new contributors. The Directors were thus brought to the point of seriously considering a paid collector and the adoption of the following policy: A person must devote his or her entire time to raising funds, he or she should be trained, capable and a member of the staff of the Bureau, not simply a collector. The collection of funds for the

society should represent educational work, each contribution secured should indicate an understanding of the work and approval of it by the contributor. A paid collector was secured who receives a regular salary and no percentage. *No percentage* because to pay percentage is damaging to the work. A rich dry goods merchant inquired, "May I know what you get out of this," and not satisfied with the collector's assurance that it is a salary, he telephoned the Treasurer enquiring about the methods employed by the society and said that if the collector received a commission he would make his contribution small and directly to the Treasurer. Mr. A—— convinced him that the "Financial Secretary," one of the regular staff, had called and that the Secretary's duty is to secure the necessary funds for the society. He forwarded a check for $100.

The Secretary began by getting thoroughly acquainted with the history of the society, the Directors were visited and their interest and support solicited. The society had collected a list of one thousand names of persons to whom appeals and two follow-up letters had been sent. The Secretary was given this list and chose two hundred names of individuals for their prominence in business, society or for their interest in philanthropy. This list was submitted to the Directors and introductions secured to those of their acquaintance. Up to this point the society had only one $100 contribution. For two or three months the work moved on with success, but it did not represent much money, an average of fourteen new contributors were secured during each month. An old contributor who had been giving $25 a year for many years, when visited said that he did not care to contribute to a bankrupt society and immediately increased the firm's contribution to $50 and gave $50 personally; he followed this up with a letter offering the use of his "Auto" for trips into the country in order to make collections, and invited the Superintendent and Financial Secretary to dinner. It was at this dinner that the impetus was given for a crystallization of effort to secure fifty $100 contributions and the host promised to head the list with $100 from his firm and $100 personally. The Directors were again visited and six signed their names to the special appeal — one for $200. The appeal is for $100 or more annually. The Bureau has now twenty-seven names that represent $2,800. From May, 1905, to May, 1906, there have

been added about one hundred and fifty new names to the list of contributors.

During the fiscal year April, 1905, to April, 1906, the income was

General Fund	$7,503 11
Relief Fund	1,781 41
Total income	$9,284 52

The contributions are still increasing at the same ratio as during the fiscal year just closed and the income promises to reach the $10,000 mark at the close of 1907.

The difficulties met with were two —

1. The inadequacy of contributions already being given by the supporters.

2. The difficulty of persuading new firms and individuals of the fact that the Bureau is reinvigorated and is doing a broad, practical and active work.

Current contributions were received on the basis of what the society had been doing ten years before rather than on the present needs and work of the Bureau. One contributor who is worth millions gave $10, he is now giving $200; one gave $2 who is now giving $100. A man extremely generous who is still running quietly a little C. O. S. of his own, increased from $25 to $100; two women when visited and asked to increase from $25 and $50 respectively to $100 each gave an additional check for $100; one woman who had never contributed gave $100; one who had given to the Relief Fund in small amounts gave $100, and hard-headed business men who could not be induced to give in previous years were won by presenting an outline of the work of the society. They gave intelligently. This kind of giving is very encouraging to the trained collector. The arousing of sympathetic interest in the work is the only thing that lends dignity to a collector's efforts.

WHAT PART SHALL THE DIRECTORS PLAY IN THE COLLECTION OF MONEY?

This has been answered by the Directors giving up the personal collection of money from the list of contributors. The purpose is to substitute for this an active interest on the part of the

Directors that will lead them to personally talk of the work to various people and pave the way for the financial secretary, and to give from time to time, personal letters to people whom they know.

THE QUESTION OF SUBSTANTIAL CONTRIBUTIONS.

The society has undoubtedly increased the respect accorded it by business men. It is fair to say that it would have been practically impossible to have gotten the money necessary to carry on the work if the suggestions made by some had been followed, of getting a large number of small contributions. The first need was the adequate large contributions from people of large means in order to "break the back of the situation," then small contributions from a large number of people in order to extend interest in the work and to get as wide a support as possible.

To sum up, the program for the successful, personal appeal must be:

1. The society must be sound. Its work must be so progressive and positive that it will constantly touch new people and awaken interest in those who contribute to its support.

2. The Directors must help unstintingly by giving introductions and by giving information concerning their acquaintances.

3. A trained "Financial Secretary" on regular salary basis who believes in the work and is not afraid to grow enthusiastic in presenting the principles for which the society stands. He or she must keep in close touch with all the society's activities.

4. To choose your collector from among the pupils of the training schools for social workers means that there you will find those who can start out on the shoulders of others and who need not experiment at the expense of the societies they represent.

PUBLIC SUBSIDIES TO PRIVATE CHARITIES.

BY HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Grateful acknowledgment is due for the valuable service rendered to the National Capital in the improvement of its public charity system by men who are honored in this National Conference. We have had since 1892 the benefit of the counsel and

efforts of Amos G. Warner, Herbert W. Lewis, and George S. Wilson. The mention of these names is all that is necessary to show our good fortune in this respect.

The coming of Dr. Warner as the first Superintendent of Charities of the District of Columbia in 1892 marks the beginning of the application to our public charitable work of the modern principles most approved in the administration of public charities. His successor, Mr. Lewis, carried on the work in the same spirit until, as both Dr. Warner and Mr. Lewis had recommended, the office of Superintendent was abolished in order that a Board of Charities, believed to be necessary for the purpose, might be created. As Secretary of that Board of Charities from its establishment in 1900 to the present time, Mr. Wilson has contributed largely to the progress which has been made.

The Board of Charities, made up of five representative citizens serving without compensation, has done in these six years one of the best pieces of municipal work that has been done in that time in the United States. Its method has been so quiet that it has not attracted general attention, but its substantial results now appearing challenge admiration.

The history of public charities in the District of Columbia may be naturally divided into three chapters: First, that covering the period prior to 1892, when the first Superintendent of Charities was appointed; second, that covering the period from 1892 to 1900, when the office of Superintendent was abolished and the Board of Charities set up; and, third, that covering the period of the Board of Charities to the present day.

For this brief outline study of the financial relation between the District of Columbia and public and private charitable institutions caring for the public charges, the records have been examined as far back as the year 1880, two years after the founding of the present form of government of the District of Columbia prescribed in the Act of Congress of June, 1878, establishing it as "the permanent form of government," which act the Supreme Court of the United States has described as the "Constitution of the District of Columbia." Prior to 1878 all public charitable work was done at the expense of the people living in the District of Columbia, who bore the whole cost of the municipal services of the National Capital. Under the terms of the Organic Act of 1878 the National Government has borne one-half of the mu-

nicipal expenses, including public charitable work, because it is the National Capital and because more than one-half of the surface of the city of Washington is owned by the National Government.

The new District of Columbia Government took over in 1878 the public charitable institutions then existing. From the first aid was given in the form of lump-sum subsidies to private charitable institutions. The heavy and disagreeable work, such as the care of the insane, the chronic sick, the strictly pauper classes, and the delinquent, has always been done by public institutions. The theory that the private charitable institutions should be utilized for public service in other cases is supposed to have been at the bottom of the practice of voting lump-sum appropriations for "maintenance" to such private institutions without exacting specific service or making specific payments for any service. Private charitable institutions naturally sought such appropriations in many cases, although there were a number of institutions which never did so.

From 1880 to 1892, the number of subsidized institutions increased from 8 to 28, while the number of public institutions did not increase at all. The amount of money appropriated for maintenance to private institutions for the same period, increased from $61,000 to $151,000 annually; while the amount of appropriations for maintenance to public institutions increased from $136,000 to $262,000. The rate of increase, both as to number of institutions and amount of maintenance, was much greater in the case of private than in the case of public institutions. From the beginning, the amount appropriated for maintenance only to public institutions has always been considerably greater than the amount appropriated for private institutions.

The increasing applications for subsidies and the increasing financial burden in the course of a dozen years alarmed Congress, which came to feel that it had not the means of ascertaining the facts or of determining the policy which ought to be pursued. It therefore created the office of Superintendent of Charities for the purpose, first of furnishing it with facts, and, second, of presenting recommendations for a systematic policy. Dr. Warner in less than two years gathered the facts and presented the recommendations in two annual reports which are well worth study, especially with reference to the relations between

the State and private institutions. His discussion of the subsidy system pro and con is as thorough as it is impartial. The conclusions afterwards published in his celebrated book on American public charities are given in the rough in these two reports. Dr. Warner saw clearly that in the then state of opposition of the subsidized private institutions and the many individuals interested in them, the work of reforming the public charitable system could better be carried on by a Board of Charities than by a paid Superintendent who had come from outside of the District and having no local relations or personal influence with those carrying on the private institutions. He did succeed through his recommendations to Congress, in establishing the Board of Children's Guardians and the Municipal Lodging House, besides formulating principles for dealing with the problem, but believing that he could do nothing more, he resigned to accept a chair in Leland Stanford, Jr., University. He had conferred a great benefit upon the people of the District of Columbia by inducing them to think of the subject in a new light and his efforts to check the growth of the subsidy system and strengthen the work of public institutions were measurably successful immediately, as well as educational in their effects. The principles he left behind, against lump-sum subsidies, in favor of public work through public institutions, and of confining public contributions to private institutions to specific payments for specific services, with as much public supervision as practicable, have finally been accepted by Congress and the community generally as sound, and have been applied as rapidly and completely as could have been expected under the circumstances, although there have been the inevitable delays and set-backs encountered by all reform policies.

During the period of office of superintendent, 1892 to 1900, the appropriations for private institutions increased only from $151,000 to $153,000 annually, while the appropriations for public institutions increased from $262,000 to $350,000 annually. The number of public institutions increased from 4 to 8, while the number of institutions receiving subsidies actually decreased from 28 to 23.

In 1892, the act creating the Board of Children's Guardians was approved, and had the policy begun with the passage of that act been continued, all the subsidies for child-caring institutions would have been eliminated the next year, and all payments for

the care of children would have been made either in the form of appropriations for public institutions, or by specific payments to private agencies through the Board of Children's Guardians. Unfortunately, there was a temporary reaction due to a reactionary Superintendent of Charities who served between Dr. Warner and Mr. Lewis and while the work of the Board of Children's Guardians was continued, the appropriations for private children's institutions were also continued, with the result that the Board of Children's Guardians thereafter took care of the growth in child-caring work naturally attendant upon the growth of the community; while the appropriations for private child-caring agencies remained at about the same amount for a number of years.

In 1898 came opposition in Congress against appropriations to sectarian institutions, with the result that three or four of the small appropriations to sectarian institutions were then eliminated. In the same year a Joint Select Committee on Investigation of Charities was appointed by Congress, whose report led up to the creation of the Board of Charities in 1900; in accordance with the recommendations of Superintendents Warner and Lewis. Since 1900, there has been a gradual, indeed reasonably rapid, change in the direction of extending public control of charitable work supported by public appropriations. In the period from 1900 to 1906, the number of purely public institutions has increased from 8 to 11, while the amount of money appropriated for maintenance of public work has increased from $350,000 to $623,000. (About $100,000 of this increase is due to the fact that the District is now charged a higher rate than formerly for the care of its insane.) The number of private institutions in receipt of public funds in any manner has decreased from 23 to 20; while the amount of money received by private institutions has decreased from $153,000 to $149,000 annually. The appropriations to five institutions have been decreased with a view to their elimination in a few years. Of the $149,000 now paid to private institutions, only $7,000 is actually granted in the form of subsidies. All the balance is paid in the form of specific payment for specific service under contract with the public authorities. In the cases of the small subsidies remaining, the appropriations are gradually being reduced with a view to their elimination.

The end of actual out and out subsidies seems to be near. Whether the contract system is to be continued indefinitely is another question. The tendency at present is probably not towards an increase of this system. It has not yet materially decreased, but the new needs — for instance the care of tubercular, convalescent and other classes of patients not now provided for — are being planned for in public institutions. The new industrial school for colored children is in the same line. There is no proposition pending looking to any growth of the contract system. Must future development look towards the discontinuance of this system, and to a system of purely public institutions? This question is answered differently by different experts and we can only say that our experience seems to indicate the desirability of minimizing as much as practicable the use of private institutions for public charges.

The experience in the District of Columbia with reference to appropriations for buildings and grounds further illustrates the tendencies observed in appropriations for maintenance. In the period from 1880 to 1892, the period prior to the Superintendent of Charities, and hence prior to any general public supervision, the total amount appropriated for buildings and grounds for public institutions was only $155,000, while the amount appropriated during the same period for buildings and grounds for private institutions was almost double this amount, the exact amount being $300,000. After 1892, the year in which the first Superintendent of Charities was appointed, up to the present time, the development has been in the other direction, and the amount appropriated for buildings and grounds for public institutions was nearly three times that appropriated for similar purposes for private institutions. The exact amounts were as follows: For public institutions, $1,156,000; for private institutions, $392,000.

The history of state aid to private charitable institutions in the District of Columbia seems to confirm the teachings of those who hold with Dr. Warner that subsidies from the state are not desirable even from the point of view of the private institutions. It certainly shows that out and out lump-sum subsidies to private charitable institutions are not in the interest of the general public. In the chaotic condition of public charity which moved Congress to set up the office of Superintendent of Charities in the hope that he would be able to bring order, co-ordination, and greater

economy and efficiency to pass, one thing was clear and that was that public aid by subsidy to a particular private institution diverted private gifts from that institution and generally speaking induced it to depend more and more upon the public aid and less and less upon private benevolence. This appeared in the phenomena of particular cases treated in Dr. Warner's reports. A private charitable institution established by benevolent people and maintained by their contributions and those of others whom in one way or another they interested, obtained through Congress an appropriation from the public funds, half of which had been contributed by the general body of taxpayers. This seemed an easier method of providing maintenance, and justified as it was by arguments that seemed sound, proved very seductive. But with the falling off of private gifts, which began with the first appropriation of public funds, the institution suffered a change in its relations and support which in the long run proved detrimental to it. Institutions which had never asked for public aid got along better than those which secured public aid. And when Congress began to reform the system by reducing or abolishing subsidy appropriations, the institutions which lost them found that while they suffered for the time being they got on better afterwards.

From the administrative point of view of the executive authority of the municipality having the interests of all concerned in its care, it seems to be evident in the light of the experience of the National Capital, that charitable institutions in which public charges are cared for should be in so far as is practicable public institutions, and at the least under close public supervision. Lump-sum subsidies to private institutions in consideration of their care of the indigent can only be justified as a make-shift, a temporary expedient, until something better can be done. There can be no real direction of the care given the community's wards, and no real accountability, before the expenditures on their account are made, under such an arrangement. The contract relation with the private institution giving specific payment for specific service rendered does secure in large measure public control of the expenditure of public funds in the care of public charges, while at the same time furnishing aid to private institutions which are, however, utilized for the public service rather than maintained for their own advantage. The right of visita-

tion and the right of auditing the accounts after the money has been expended are all that the state can exercise in dealing with the subsidized institutions under the lump-sum system of subsidies. But under the contract system a large measure of control is secured by the state and a strict accountability provided in advance of expenditures. There is no doubt that certain classes of public charitable institutional work ought to be entirely performed by public institutions. But it may be a question whether in some instances, to be determined by local conditions, it may not be just as profitable for the state to use by the proper contract system, the facilities offered by private institutions as a means of caring for certain classes of dependents upon public support.

VIII.

Defectives.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY E. R. JOHNSTONE, PRINCIPAL OF THE NEW JERSEY TRAINING SCHOOL, VINELAND, CHAIRMAN.

In preparing material for this report, as well as for the work of the Section on Defectives, the Committee has communicated with many members of the National Educational Association as well as members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. As a result of this correspondence five general topics seemed the most important and so far as possible they are incorporated in the program.

These topics are:

a. The necessity for special care and training for defectives.

b. The need of educating the public to know more of this class.

c. Self-support.

d. Preventable causes of defectiveness.

e. Laws.

Besides these have been suggested a consideration of the aims and possibilities of the new institution for feeble-minded and epileptics about to be established in Pennsylvania, and the scientific value to society of the institutions for the feeble-minded.

The first topic will be fully treated during this conference. For many years it has held an important place on our programs and still the care and the need for care must be emphasized. A general summing up of that all-important question, permanent custodial care, was presented to the Conference of 1896, and tomorrow afternoon at three o'clock this care of defectives will again be treated fully. As plenty of time is allotted for general discussion and as this Section will consider the Deaf and the Blind as well as the feeble-minded, an interesting meeting is promised. We hope for authoritative statements concerning per-

* Discussion on Defectives, p. 563.

manent custody, particularly for females of child-bearing age and males of evil tendencies; the asylum vs. the school feature of our institutions; the de-institutionalizing of certain pupils, and perhaps some practical suggestion for a tribunal to decide whether the institution or the home is most advisable in certain cases. This should lead us to some further consideration of the special classes being established in many cities, and finally what is to be done with the large number of feeble-minded who are blind or deaf.

NEED OF GREATER KNOWLEDGE.

The second topic: The need of greater knowledge of these classes, is of vital importance just at this time, when institutions large and small are being established all over the country and the backward and feeble-minded are being recognized and segregated in the public schools.

Your committee merely offers a few thoughts, which if they shall accomplish any good, must be carried by yourselves into your communities and put into practice.

First. Some definite training in all of our normal schools, so that the large body of young men and women who each year become teachers shall be able to recognize and know what to do with the defectives they will find in their classes. I know of no normal school that gives real, practical instruction along these lines. Also, the medical colleges should give their students familiarity with mental defect in its various degrees sufficient to enable them to properly advise the parents. One of the hardest problems of the institution superintendent to-day is that presented because in so many cases the physician (let us hope through ignorance and not with intent to deceive) tells the parent that the child will soon outgrow his condition, and that a year or two at the school for the feeble-minded will make it normal. As we have no commitment laws in most states, the superintendent, who sees at a glance that he has a hopeless case which should have nothing but permanent custody, is not only put in an embarrassing position, but at a positive disadvantage in the eyes of the parent, by the physician from whom he should expect the heartiest support.

When medical inspection was introduced into the schools the workers with defectives hoped that this was a step toward expert investigation into mental defect, but except in isolated cases the

physicians have done nothing in this connection. We hope to see the day when there shall be a psychologist or a paidologist regularly employed by the Board of Education of every city. Specific training in the Medical Colleges and the normal schools and colleges will lead in this direction.

Second. Greater efforts must be made to have the great public know of the defectives, so that we shall not be accused of having axes to grind when we ask for more provision for them. Institution men must encourage visits, give out information and indeed, conduct a campaign of education, so that in the first place the unwillingness of parents to send their children shall be changed to eagerness, and then will follow the demands of public opinion and the concessions of legislatures. Such bodies as this must join in this campaign.

Third. More correct and discriminating standards or terms for classification are needed. In the past it has been very hard to draw the line between the defectives and delinquents and normals. Some progress has been made, but we are still far at sea. The defectives are found in reformatories and prisons. In the schools for the deaf and blind are many feeble-minded, hindering the work with the brighter ones. They are found in institutions of every kind and class and in all lines of public endeavor, and the great question is: How shall we differentiate?

The consideration of the juvenile delinquent necessarily includes a study of the defective. Is it not true that all wrong doing (at least on the part of minors) is due to ignorance or disease? Must not therefore our treatment of such be curative or educative?

There are certain periods of childhood in which "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" is the natural law, and retarded development leaves many of larger physical growth in this mental stage. Other mental conditions of hindered children find their counterpart in young, normal children. I abstract from Barnes: "A study of seven hundred normal children shows that between the ages of nine and fifteen about fifty per cent. object to the delegation of authority by a recognized head to one not ordinarily so recognized, and nearly three-fourths object to the authority, for example, of the teacher as against that of the parent where there is an apparent conflict of orders."

Nine hundred children between seven and thirteen: "Lying

is usually spontaneous. Deliberate lying may be resorted to in order to keep in with present authority. Thirty-eight per cent. lie directly at 7 years, 10 per cent. evade at 12 years."

After a study of children's attitude toward law, James Sully says: "This seems to show that a child objects not only to the particular administration under which he happens to live, but to all law, as implying restraints on free action," and Barnes, after his test, says: "The majority of young children utterly ignore laws and rules."

Estella Darrah, after a similar test concludes that "The majority of school children look upon a rule with a definite penalty as merely a device to inspire terror — a threat not at all connected with the actual punishment which may be inflicted for the offense given."

Shall not our feeble-minded child, although physically grown up, be measured therefore in terms of his mental power, and punishment be educative for him? It is a far cry from "I want it, therefore, I may take it," and "I saw it first, so it is mine," to the nice distinctions of ownership which our complex civilization requires us to make in accord with a dozen new laws every time a state legislature convenes.

The moral imbecile so fully described by the lamented Dr. Kerlin at the Conference of 1890 may be found in every reformatory in the country and at large in most communities. Punishment in the ordinary sense is manifestly unjust in such cases.

Dr. Taylor's paper this morning will help us to draw the line, and I hope will be fully discussed.

We must learn to differentiate between the child who has a positive brain lesion and should therefore be permanently in the institution for the feeble-minded; the child who is subnormal because of his home environment and needs a day school but a different home; and the child who is merely backward because of physical weakness, ignorance of our language, etc., and give him just what he needs. We must, too, understand him who is morally awry and needs the reform school; the one whose home is unfit and who should therefore be in the detention school, and that one who merely needs a good teacher with a kindly but firm discipline.

SELF-SUPPORT.

"Can the institutions for defectives be made sulf-supporting?" is a familiar question. It depends upon what is meant by

self-supporting and what class of institutions are being considered.

If it is meant that the pupil is fitted to make his living in society, the schools for the deaf are self-supporting. Probably 90 per cent. of their graduates are able not only to support themselves but also their families. The schools for the blind only graduate about 50 per cent. who are able to support themselves without assistance, and less than 5 per cent. of the feeble-minded can become self-supporting in the great world, and even then the question arises as to whether they are only backward or are really feeble-minded, and if the latter, whether they should be permitted to return to society because of the danger of their procreating their kind and of a lower type.

If we mean self-supporting in the institution, the schools for the deaf and blind do not contemplate finding lucrative employment in their institutes. In the schools for the feeble-minded from five to fifty per cent. may become self-supporting, depending upon the grade of pupils received. Those schools accepting only trainable cases will have the larger percentage of self-supporting pupils, and again it must be borne in mind that one-third of a normal man's work means self-support. With an industrial opportunity, i. e., materials found, the job given, proper instruction and direction furnished and a market for the product provided, many quite low-grade imbeciles are machines enough to pay for their home and entertainment.

The above refers to the individual. Considering the institutions as a unit, in the sense that the public schools are not self-supporting, of course the schools for the blind and deaf can never be so.

Because most of the schools for the feeble-minded take all grades of mental defect and such a large proportion are of the lower grades, they cannot become self-supporting. The farm colony idea with a reasonable number of paid employes and a large extent of farm land, has made many institutions much nearer self-support, but still the per capita cost is over one hundred dollars per annum. Many of us have hitched our wagons to this star, but the millenium cometh not yet.

That manual and industrial training are essential and economic is no longer questioned, and that industrial institutions

away from the parent institution (at least in the case of the blind) are wise, is certain.

The imbecile can be taught to make shoes, and clothing, brooms, mattresses and bricks. He can plow, plant, harvest, and can the products of the farm. He can raise poultry and hogs and almost manage a dairy, and so contribute largely toward the support of the institution, but he carries around his neck a millstone made up of the young, trainable children on the one hand, and the idio-imbeciles and idiots on the other.

PREVENTABLE CAUSES OF DEFECTIVENESS.

This topic will be treated on Wednesday at 3 P. M. Many thoughts have been presented to your committee — among others, adenoids, chorea, poor hearing and eyesight, defective speech, patent medicines, adulterated foods, environment and overpressure of school children, either when too young, at adolescence or out of school hours. Most of these thoughts will be fully treated at the section meeting.

LAWS.

For many years efforts have been made to have proper laws for the prevention of the increase of defectives, but at almost every point the question of the infringement upon personal rights has been raised. This question is too large to attempt to treat here, but that phase of it relating to the marriage of defectives is well treated by Mrs. Kate Gannett Wells in the proceedings of the twenty-fourth conference.

A number of states make the marriage void when either of the parties are insane or idiotic. Connecticut has a strong law punishing not only marriage but carnal knowledge with those classes. New Jersey's law provides punishment for marriage of or with those who have been inmates of the institutions for the insane or feeble-minded.

A careful revision of the marriage laws in the various states is needed along these very lines. Elopement marriages, marriages under age, consanguineous marriages, the marriage of people while intoxicated, etc., all need legal restriction and enforcement of the laws.

Laws requiring permanent custody, of women at least, are needed. We need it to be mandatory to send the defectives to

the institutions, and the capacity of institutions must be sufficient to work in harmony with the compulsory education laws.

It will be well to require reports from physicians and midwives as to the condition of children at birth, and have laws to cover those cases where the parents are manifestly responsible for evident defectiveness if it can be ascertained.

Society protects itself from contagion and infection, but practically overlooks this condition which insidiously saps its foundations.

The new institution in Pennsylvania has a section by itself and need not be considered here.

SCIENTIFIC VALUE.

Finally, let us consider the scientific value of public institutions.

Certain facts need to be emphasized. The trainers of public school children have much to learn from the institutions for the defectives. When Dr. Howe said many years ago: "It (the school for the feeble-minded) is a link in the chain of common schools, the last, indeed, but still a necessary link in order to embrace all the children in the state," and Dr. Wilbur, "A new institution in a new field of education has the double mission of securing the best possible results, and at the same time of making that impression upon the public mind as will give faith in its object;" they evidently thought particularly of the school feature. In the minds of the great public, however, the defectives have largely been thought of as close to the insane. Most schools for the feeble-minded have physicians at their head, and the pathological view of the whole subject has been considered the most important for scientific research. Slowly the great fact that it was more a social than a medical problem has grown, and now the relation to education is forging to the front. Neither the physician, the sociologist nor the educator should claim the field, but a new view including all must be taken, and education must be the most important.

To quote our President, Dr. Devine: "None of the social causes thus far enumerated, not even sickness, is as important a cause of inefficiency in the individual as defective education, the entire lack of training for some and the wrong kind of training for others. Here opens the whole field of elementary educa-

tion, the goal to which eventually all reforms come, the one most worthy field of all social effort, the one unquenchable hope of those who care profoundly for their fellow men."

Since the appointment in 1884 of a standing committee on the defectives by this conference, there has been but little presented touching upon the relationship between the schools for defectives and the public schools; indeed, there has been but little concerning the educational feature of the institutions. The schools for the blind and deaf shrinking from the term charity have had almost no consideration in this conference.

It is also true that in the National Educational Association which in 1897 established a Section on the Blind, Deaf and Feeble-minded, very little has been said of the education of the feeble-minded, and almost nothing of its bearing upon the problems of general education.

In the last three or four years there is a gradual professional broadening. The physician, the sociologist and the educator are drawing closer. The National Conference of Charities and Correction, the National Educational Association and the American Medical Association are seeing and must continue to see that so many problems overlap that no program is complete unless consideration is given the main lines of thought of the others. In my own state (New Jersey) last year a most encouraging sign was shown in the programs of the State Conference of Charities with much time devoted to educational matters and the State Teachers' Association, which devoted much time to social matters.

In one public institution for the feeble-minded there is already established a summer school for teachers, intended to fit them for teaching in the special classes in the public schools. There should be many more and the institutions for the deaf and blind should offer like opportunities for those desiring to teach in the day schools for the deaf and blind.

One large school for the feeble-minded has also completed arrangements for the regular employment of a thoroughly competent paidologist and psychologist who will pursue investigations along the lines of fatigue, memory, attention, discipline, curricula, food, etc., with a special view to their application to public school work.

The public institutions supported by public funds surely owe to the public everything that it is in their power to give. With

the demand for more care and custody, funds for educational work therein are hard to raise, but as the need is better known the funds are forthcoming. Money for scientific purposes is still harder to raise, but all of us must lift our voices and make the demand. Our charity too often merely alleviates the evil already present. Scientific investigation may easily show us how to relieve and prevent. There is in all of our institutions plenty of material for study, but a lack of means and men with time to make the studies.

We have lessons for the humanitarian — our inmates are the littlest of God's children; for the parent — our methods of care and training must be the most approved and scientific; for the tax payer — we can prove that it is cheaper to prevent than to cure and punish; for the educator — our pupils move slowly and their mental actions are as it were under a microscope; for the physician — all forms of physical asymmetry and disease are found here; for the psychologist — mental irregularities are on every hand; and, in many institutions even for the agriculturist, for have not many of us large farms whereon the most approved methods of farming are carried out?

But all of this must be studied. Facts must be gathered, sorted and sifted and then presented in the proper form to the public. Shall we not begin at the right end? Organized charity points the way. Let science step into the field which only awaits the skillful hand which shall make it yield even an hundred fold.

PRE-HISTORIC EDUCATION OF THE RACE IN ITS RELATION TO PRESENT EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS.

BY THOMAS M. BALLIET, PH. D., DEAN OF SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, N. Y. UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY.

We have for so many years been associating education with books and schools that it is difficult for us to conceive of an education carried on without them. In common parlance we use the term illiteracy as identical with ignorance, if not with stupidity. Education is essentially the development of body and mind; it is difficult for the average man to realize that this process of development may be possible without the aid of books and

schools, and it is equally difficult for him to admit that men not widely acquainted with books may be in a high sense educated.

When the white man landed in America, he found a race of uncivilized men, wholly ignorant of reading and of writing in the sense in which we commonly use those words, and yet whose leaders were men of extraordinary intellectual power, great shrewdness and cunning; who were, in their own way, in many cases, a match for the best representatives of the white race. Some of the Indian chiefs of our early history would have been Franklins and Lincolns if they had lived in a larger environment, even without school education. In the Middle Ages it was not uncommon for princes to be unable to read and write, and yet these very princes were sometimes successful military leaders and ruled as well as reigned. They were men of power, men of developed mind and body, and yet they had not what is commonly known as a book education.

It is not known how long the human race has lived upon the earth — a conservative estimate is probably a hundred thousand years; of these, only about seven thousand years can show what is commonly known as civilization, and with most of the dominant races of today, civilization is not over one to two thousand years old. The period during which a large number of people have been educated through books is indeed a very short one; in most families it is limited to one or two generations. Education through books has therefore played a comparatively small part in the evolution of the mind and body of man. Even during the period during which book education has been very common, a large part of the development attributed to book education has been gained through education out of school and apart from books. Modern life is becoming complex in every respect, and education tends to become more and more bookish with the invention of machinery that does our heavy work and through the accumulation of wealth which makes manual labor for a large number of men and women not a matter of necessity. What was that education before the age of books and of schools? How did that wonderful physical and mental development come about which made our great Indian chiefs? In other words, how was the human race educated during that long period of not much less than one hundred thousand years before the age of books and civilization?

It is a truism to say that education is brought about through self-activity, both of body and mind. The very presence of a healthy, vigorous body in a savage implies an immense amount of physical experience of some kind in the case of his ancestors for ages. The presence of a large brain implies the use of a brain for ages. It is a fact that the human brain has increased in size and weight very little within historic time. It is one of the fundamental assumptions of biology that function develops organ. Without going into current speculations in regard to heredity, we may say that the presence of a large human brain at the dawn of civilization is evidence of mental activity and brain work in general of a most important kind, through past ages. In short, it is impossible to account for the vigorous, healthy body of pre-historic man and for his vigorous, large brain, except on the assumption that his ancestors have had through the ages an enormous amount of bodily activity and of mental activity to bring about this development. All this is nothing more or less than the pre-historic education of the race.

Questions of a fundamental nature suggest themselves here. First; What was the nature of this pre-historic education? Second; Is the human race today in need of this very kind of education or has civilization made it unnecessary?

The human body, before the dawn of history, was educated through bodily activity. The nature of this activity was probably the same as that which developed also healthy bodies in the case of all the wild animals. It consisted during the growing period, when the play instinct was strong, almost exclusively of play activities; after the body had reached maturity, this same development was carried on through the serious work of life. There was little accumulation of wealth in those early days of our forefathers and everyone engaged in bodily activity of a serious kind during the period of maturity. This absence of wealth made it impossible to preserve the weak who could not work; and the aged, the maimed, the halt, and the blind, were mercilessly left to their fate; even infants who were likely to become physical weaklings were not allowed to live. Play during the growing period and useful work during the period of maturity were the means by which our remote illiterate ancestors developed strong bodies. Is this sort of education needed by the civilized man? We are just waking up to the realization of the

fact that this feature of pre-historic education is fundamental in the education of civilized man. The herding together of the human race today in large centres of population where their homes are in tenement houses, ten stories high, with no open spaces about to give opportunity for children to play, makes the question of reviving this feature of pre-historic education an absolutely vital one. Moreover, the leisure which accumulated wealth, even when badly distributed, makes possible, inventional machinery which has relieved even the workman of much of the heaviest manual labor, tend to rob the race of the bodily activity which it got in pre-historic times through its daily work, in struggling against adverse environments. Civilization has invented two sorry substitutes for this ancient mode of training the body. For the joyful, free play of children of pre-historic times, it has substituted a most artificial system of formal gymnastics; and for the useful work, the product of which inspired the workman with enthusiasm and gave him an interesting aim, it has substituted the gymnasium and that sort of outdoor exercise which for conscience sake is typified by a walk "for the sake of your health." It has substituted, in short, an uninteresting sort of bodily training for that effective activity which in primitive man engaged the mind as well as the body. The tendency, so marked at present, to abolish formal gymnastics in our schools and substitute free play and the rhythmic movements of the dance prevalent among primitive peoples, is a practical recognition of the need of preserving these features of pre-historic education under the modern conditions of civilization. How the bodily activity through the mature years of our primitive forefathers in the form of useful manual work, may be revived under conditions of modern civilization, is a perplexing question. Prince Kropotkin has pointed out one form of the solution; and in a recent novel, "Back to the Soil," Bradley Gilman has suggested another quite similar to it.

How did primitive man develop his brain if not through the use of books? In the first place, he developed it through the use of his senses. Eyes, ears and the sense of touch, together with the various other senses, were used probably for nearly a hundred thousand years before there was any such thing as gaining knowledge through printed symbols. Seeing and hearing and

the use of the other senses were the primary sources of this primitive, intellectual education.

Primitive man was educated through his industries as he gradually developed them. The human hand was used as a foot among our very remotest ancestors, and it was one of the greatest epochs in the evolution of man when he assumed the upright position and set his hands free for movements expressive of thought. It was the beginning of the mastery of mind over matter. Even today a man is said to be able to "handle" a project or enterprise when he has the ability to master it and to manage it with success. The primitive industries of pre-historic man furnish a degree of manual training, the development value of which we are just beginning to realize. He built his hut for shelter; he made his clothes to protect him against the cold, — and in warm climates possibly, at first, for ornament; he had to make his dugout and later his boat to remove the limitation which streams set to his movements; he had to fish and to hunt to acquire his daily food; he had to make his bow and arrow, his spear and other tools and utensils, for the sake of protecting himself against human enemies and wild beasts. In the prosecution of these primitive industries he developed gradually the rudiments of industrial art, and through it his æsthetic faculties. This use of the hand, directed by the mind in skilled labor, was, beyond doubt, one of the most effective means of developing both mind and body.

Primitive man was educated through social intercourse, through contact of mind with mind, in relations both friendly and unfriendly. The social instincts were developed within the tribe, and the combating and fighting instincts, together with the virtues of courage, bravery and heroism, were developed in conflicts between tribe and tribe. The early evolution of family life and rearing of children were undoubtedly among the very strongest forces that developed his ethical nature. He learned, in short, his ethics, not from books, but from actual participation in the ethical activities of his kind. He became moral by practice, not by instruction. He became courageous and brave by facing danger in war and in his struggle with wild beasts. He became loyal, truthful and gradually altruistic, because through those virtues alone could he maintain his position as a member of his tribe and enjoy the protection which it afforded to the individual. In this

social life one of his strongest forces to develop thought and feeling was, no doubt, oral language. Communication through oral language and the preservation of oral tradition form the connecting link in the education of the race between the most primitive training through mere contact with nature on the one hand, and the later transitions to the education of books within historic times.

Can modern education afford to slight these features of the pre-historic training of the human race? Has civilization so changed the conditions of modern life that we can afford to substitute books for tools and the printed page for the human voice? Can we afford to emphasize "reading, writing and arithmetic" at the expense of the use of the children's eyes and ears in the gaining of knowledge directly from things? What shall we say of current discussions of popular education which speak of the three R's as the essentials of the curriculum; and of such subjects as physical training, nature study, drawing, manual training, and music, as "fads" or as "unessentials?" Such question-begging epithets in our newspapers today largely take the place of argument in popular thought. Is it not a noteworthy fact that the long period of pre-historic education, which gave the human being a healthy body and vigorous brain, was carried on, not by the use of the "essentials" in the modern course of study, but solely through the "fads and frills," so-called? Is it not equally true that a training so effective in pre-historic times cannot be slighted safely in the modern school? And what the growing savage needed to develop his body and mind is needed by the growing children of the present day. Until civilization abolishes the need of muscle, bone and nerve, there must be physical exercise. As long as civilized man cannot get along without eyes and ears there must be a training in observation, especially during the growing period of the human brain. To a child up to the age of eight, writing and arithmetic are absolutely unessential, and reading is less essential than physical exercise and fresh air. None of the so-called "essentials" are taught in a kindergarten, and yet we all recognize the vast significance of kindergarten training. What is essential in education or development of the growing child in his early years is fresh air, wholesome food, abundance of sleep, abundance of opportunity to play, opportunity to use his senses upon things which he wants to

know, and intercourse with other children and with adults whose personal influence is wholesome and uplifting. Reading, writing and arithmetic become of greater and greater importance with advancing years, but they must not occupy the dominant place in the early education of the child, to which many people of conservative type would assign them. In short, as the human being comes into the world, even to-day, with muscles, nerves, vital organs, and with sense organs, none of which differ from those of pre-historic man fifty or a hundred thousand years ago, so we must preserve in our systems of education the means which were so effective in primitive times in the development of this phase of human nature.

THE CARE AND TRAINING OF THE DEAF.

BY A. L. E. CROUTER, SUPERINTENDENT SCHOOL FOR DEAF, MT. AIRY, PENNSYLVANIA.

The care of deaf children, whether at home or at school, involves few of the special responsibilities that are incurred in the care and training of feeble-minded children, nor many of those appertaining to the care of blind children. The cares involved are not unlike those observed and practiced in the care of children blessed with all their faculties and senses. They are never of a custodial or reformatory or penal character. They are cares that involve health, cleanliness, physical comfort, happiness, the formation of good habits, and of strong, self-sustaining, and self-dependent character They are questions of food supply, of heat and light, and of morals and discipline, and mental growth. Institutions for the deaf are not to be regarded as homes or asylums, or reformatories for the care and treatment of the immoral, the delinquent or deficient classes, but rather as so many schools, maintained solely for the instruction of a large and interesting class of children, who, by reason of a physical infirmity, the loss of hearing, are denied instruction in the public schools. Nor, in my opinion, should these children be classified as defectives simply because of the loss of one of their senses; they should be spared the infliction of such an unnecessary burden; their life-long load is quite sufficient without it. As well classify as defectives men who are armless, or hairless or toothless.

Unlike the feeble-minded or the blind, the deaf seldom or never excite public attention or public sympathy by mere externals. Judged by his outward appearance, the deaf man passes as one of many fellow humans engaged in the ordinary affairs of life. He eats, sleeps, feels, thinks, works, suffers as all men do. It is only when accosted that the nature and extent of his misfortune is discerned. Then, if inclined to reply, he will speak in a peculiar tone, or write, or, if uninstructed, raise a finger to his lips or to his ear, or to both, to indicate that he is deaf and mute.

Deaf people are more numerous than one might think. The total deaf population of the entire country is something like 50,000; one in every fifteen hundred, according to our latest statistics, is bereft of hearing. There are 12,000 deaf children under instruction in the various public and private schools of the country at this time. The total number of teachers employed is 1,500, the total number of schools is 128. The largest are those at Columbus, Ohio, and Mt. Airy, Philadelphia. The age of admission varies in different states, in most it is not younger than six nor over twenty-one. In a few home schools, pupils are admitted as young as two and three years. The only absolute conditions required of applicants are that they shall be in good health in mind and body, and too deaf to receive instruction in schools for the hearing.

The causes of deafness are various and presumably the same to-day as five hundred years ago. Assuming that the causes of deafness in pupils in the schools at Mt. Airy are similar to the causes that obtain in like schools the country over, we find as follows: Out of 510 pupils

Causes of Deafness.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Congenital	113	100	213
Scarlet Fever	25	18	43
Meningitis	22	14	36
Fall	19	5	24
Measles	13	5	18
Brain Fever	10	7	17
Convulsions	8	6	14
Catarrh and Colds	6	7	13
Disease of the Ear and Throat	6	7	13
La Grippe	6	4	10
Abscess	6	4	10

Causes of Deafness.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Accident	7	2	9
Typhoid Fever	3	4	7
Whooping Cough	3	4	7
Diphtheria	3	3	6
Mumps	3	2	5
Paralysis	2	3	5
Pneumonia	1	3	4
Marasmus	1	1	2
Dropsy of Brain	1	1	2
Chicken Pox	1	.....	1
Poisoned Internally	1	.....	1
Blood Clotting on Brain	1	.....	1
Cholera Infantum	.....	1	1
Intermittent Fever	1	.....	1
Sickness	5	5	10
Unknown	4	33	37
Total number	271	239	510

The chief cause noted is a congenital one — nearly one-half were born deaf. It may be stated that one of the chief causes of congenital deafness is consanguineous marriage. The percentage of born deafness is greatest in families and communities where parties of the same kith and kin are married and given in marriage. This is notably true of Jews, Quakers, Mennonites and Dunkards, both in this country and in Europe, where statistics upon the subject have been carefully collected. The intermarriage of the congenitally deaf, especially of families where there is inherited tendency to the defect, is also a contributing cause. Directly and indirectly there is more deafness traceable to these two causes than to all other causes combined, and it is greatly to be hoped that the time is not far distant when such unions will be prohibited by legislative enactment.

The unfortunate effects of deafness, especially when it occurs in early life, are mental rather than physical; they are seen in the retarded mental development rather than in any lack of physical growth in those who suffer from the defect. Unless there be other causes present, creating an enfeebled physical condition, the deaf are known to be as strong, as vigorous, as active and as long lived as the hearing. Insurance companies insure them quite as readily and on as generous terms as those usually accorded the hearing. It is not in any physical weakness, or

discomfort, or disadvantage, though these be considerable, that we are to seek for the almost overpowering calamity that deafness entails, but rather in the stunted, retarded, undeveloped activities of the mind. The uneducated deaf man may truly be said to be a man without a country. He is always a foreigner, even among his nearest friends and relatives. His great difficulty is to make himself understood, he thinks but cannot express his thoughts to those about him. He has a language, natural gestures, all his own, but few or none understand it

Max Muller says, in effect at least, "Without speech, no reason." The uneducated deaf man is a living contradiction of this philosophic aphorism. He has no speech, yet he reasons. True, while his eyes have seen, his ears have not heard, hence the development of his mind, as compared with that of the hearing child, lacks balance. His power of visual observation and memory is well developed, often abnormally so, but the speech and language centres of the brain have failed of needed stimulus. Verbal memory is lacking, but the development of his reasoning powers, while greatly retarded, has grown through sight and touch with each day's experiences. He thinks not in words but in pictures, images of the things that pass his mental vision; and when he comes to express his ideas, he uses natural gestures or pantomime in order to set forth his thoughts in picture form. Numberless instances might be given in illustration of the ability of the uneducated deaf to reason clearly and logically on a variety of subjects. Not to weary you, let me read how an uneducated deaf man in Maine, some years ago, made a will that was upheld by the courts of that state:

"Horatio Foster died in March, 1880. Eleven days before his death, being then seventy-six years of age, he made a will, giving his property, which consisted of a bequest received from Mrs. Clarissa B. Foster, his mother, to his brother Jacob and Jacob's wife Margaret, to be divided equally between them."

"The manner in which the will was executed is described as follows: Six witnesses were present. A copy of his mother's will, from whom he inherited his property of $7,000, and a package of bonds, used as a symbol of the property, were laid on the table. Pointing to the will and the bonds, Dr. Johnson made an imitation of writing, and with a questioning look asked him in words if he should write his will. He nodded assent. Then Dr.

Johnson imitated death, pointed to the old will, the bonds, and blank paper, and said in words: 'When you are dead and buried, what do you want done with all your money?' The words, 'when,' 'dead,' 'buried,' 'what,' 'all,' and 'money,' he could without doubt read from the lips He replied, moving his lips to say 'baby,' his sign for his brother Jacob, and pointed to the door out of which he had gone: he then described a half-circle on the top of his head, his sign for his brother's wife, who wore a braid in that manner, pointed to the door out of which she had gone, and made a cutting motion across his arm to indicate division into equal parts. Then a young lady, who readily communicated with him, in signs, repeated Dr. Johnson's question. He replied as before, omitting the pointing to the doors. Then she placed the photographs of his natural heirs before him, repeating the same question with words and signs. He took the two photographs, (of his brother Jacob and his wife), and placed them apart from the others, with the sign of division. His bearing was thoughtful, serious, and intelligent, his eyes keenly fixed on the lips of the party communicating with him. The will was then written by Dr. Johnson, read to the company, and explained to the mute by the signs previously used, and to this he nodded his head. He was asked to make his mark, whereupon he took up the pen and to the surprise of all signed a capital H." After much litigation that will was declared valid by the highest courts in Maine.

For purposes of instruction, the deaf are classified as follows: The Congenital Deaf, those deaf from birth; the Semi-Deaf, those suffering from partial loss of hearing; the Semi-Mute, those who have lost their hearing after having acquired speech naturally, and the Feeble-minded Deaf, those who suffer serious impairment of mental power together with loss of hearing from whatever cause.

There may also be added yet another most peculiar class, the Hearing Mute, those who remain mute or unable to speak without serious impairment of their hearing. In some European schools, instruction is prosecuted under this classification except that the Semi-Deaf and Semi-Mute, and Feeble-minded Deaf and Hearing Mute are grouped together, thus making for purposes of instruction three principal groups, the born deaf class, the semi-deaf and semi-mute class, and the feeble-

minded deaf and hearing mute class. In this country, however, most unfortunately no such grouping or classification has ever been made, and we find gathered together for purposes of instruction all of these classes in one and the same school.

The results of this grouping are far from satisfactory, especially so with the feeble-minded deaf and hearing mutes. While the congenital deaf, the semi-deaf and semi-mute may perhaps be grouped together without serious obstacle to their progress, though even these were far better separated, the two latter classes, the feeble-minded deaf and the hearing mute, should for many reasons be cared for and instructed, as far as it may be possible to instruct them, in schools by themselves or in schools where hearing children of similar character are provided for. Among the reasons that may be cited are the method of instruction that should be pursued, the special training required, and the serious results that follow the association of this class of deaf children with normal deaf children.

The feeble-minded deaf and hearing mute constitute about five per cent. of the deaf population of the country. They have the characteristics peculiar to all feeble-minded children. In their care and instruction the language of signs should be freely used and teachers and officers responsible for their training should be masters of sign-language communication. Writing and the manual alphabet should, when possible, be employed, but little or no attempt should be made to teach them to speak, it is time wasted.

They should, under supervision, be given manual duties to perform, such as farm laborers and farm domestics are accustomed to, but should rarely be given any mechanical tasks to execute. In all simple employments they will be found faithful and helpful. They should be provided with games of the simplest character for their amusement; they will seldom be found to excel in gymnastic exercise of any sort. As far as possible, the sexes should not be allowed to mingle together, either in school work, or in the performance of manual duties.

It has frequently occurred to me that our Training Schools for feeble-minded hearing children are admirably equipped for the care and training of feeble-minded deaf children, and I most sincerely hope the day is not far distant when all our feeble-minded deaf children may be admitted and cared for in every way in these

admirable schools. American educators of the deaf are fully agreed that this is the proper disposition to make of this class of deaf children. In several states provision is made for their care and training in schools for the feeble-minded but not along the lines I have suggested, and I respectfully submit the plan as one worthy of trial. Indeed I would go a step further. I would not only use the language of signs for the feeble-minded deaf and hearing mutes in our training schools, but I would strongly recommend its use in the training of certain grades of feeble-minded children possessed of hearing and speech. The plan was tried with marked success in the American Asylum for the Deaf at Hartford, Conn., years ago, before the establishment of special schools for the training of children of feeble intellect in this country.

In Europe, classes of this character have been maintained for some time in schools for the feeble-minded with very satisfactory results. At a convention of German teachers, held some time ago, in Baden, it was resolved that all deaf-mutes of feeble intellect should be separated from the normally endowed and placed in schools for the feeble-minded; and that such schools should be provided with trained teachers of deaf children.

There are two principal methods of teaching the deaf, the manual or sign method and the oral method. With the former, signs, natural and conventional, finger spelling and writing are the chief means of securing mental development, under the latter, speech, speech-reading and writing are the chief means. These two methods are employed side by side, often in the same school, more frequently and more successfully in separate schools, to secure the mental advancement of deaf children. In former years, sign methods were much more generally pursued than oral, but in later years the oral method has made rapid gains in popular favor. Fully two-thirds of the deaf are taught by speech methods at the present time, and more than half the teachers employed pursue oral methods of instruction.

There are two other methods that may be briefly mentioned, the manual alphabet method and the auricular method. The former wholly discards signs and uses finger spelling for all purposes of securing mental development, the latter seeks to attain the same end through the development and use of what-

ever dormant powers of hearing the child may possess. Up to the present day, however, it has not found many advocates, nor has it made much advance as a means of deaf-mute instruction.

The length of time usually required to complete the common school education of a deaf child is about ten years. Some schools give twelve and some fifteen and even eighteen. The branches taught are those usually found in our best common and grammar schools.

You may be interested in a brief outline of the methods of instruction pursued. Accompany me, then, in imagination, to a class-room of beginners on the first day of school. Here you find a class of eight or ten children, six or seven years of age, gathered about their teacher ready for the first step in their mental development. There are beautiful games and toys to attract their attention — great balls to bounce, and little ones to toss; tops to spin; floor ladders to walk on; colored crayons to use on the big wall slates, and ring toss and bean bags, and lovely dolls, more than they have ever seen before. The teacher watches until all are looking at her and then gives the spoken word of direction. Some one child catches the meaning and the others follow, or, if not, the teacher shows them what she means, and then again repeats those strange, silent movements of the mouth, those words which are beginning to be alive, to have meaning as they never did before. Then follow gymnastics of arms, hands, feet, head, eyes, lips and tongue. They blow out candles and blow feathers and bits of paper, in this way discovering another of their possessions — breath. Then lips part with a puff of breath and the sound of the letter p is given — the written character is presented and the spoken sound is associated with it. One after another the easier consonant sounds are taught in this way. Then the teacher places one of the child's hands on her chest and the other on her own, and gives voice, perhaps a simple syllable, bu-bu-bu. This is a new revelation to the child, and the vowel sounds are begun. Combinations of vowels and consonants follow and some bright morning the door into a new world is opened to the child when the teacher pronouncing the name of some familiar object holds up that object or points to it again and again, while the children, slowly repeating the word after her, grasp at last the idea that they too may become possessed of this wonderful speech power

that the teacher has, that they may know the names of all these objects about them and of the actions with which they are so familiar, but for which they have had no words. The long journey from nothing to something is now really begun. Sentence building is only the naming of actor and action. Letters, stories and journals are only series of actions pictured to the mind in words. Slowly language, spoken and written, is thus acquired until the regular studies of a school course follow in their usual order.

There are, however, many pitfalls by the way that one does not note until he makes the journey in company with a class of deaf children We complain of German verbs but our English verbs present no easy task to a little deaf child. Just for a moment imagine how perplexing the change from the declarative to the negative and interogative must seem. The child has learned that he is to say, John ran. He naturally makes this statement negative by the use of a single word, John ran *not*. He is told that that is wrong, he must change ran to did run, and between the two must place his negative, thus John did *not* run Then he tries a question — *John ran?* He is promptly told that that is not the question form. Again he must change the verb to did run, but this time he must place that meaningless *did* at the beginning of the sentence and leave the other part of the verb at the end so it shall read, did John run?

Then again the various meanings of the same word are frequently bewildering to the deaf child Take, for instance, the verb to draw, and we have following in rapid succession each with different meaning, "A horse draws a wagon;" "The play drew a large audience;" "The boy was told to draw a mug of beer:" "A man drew a check for a large sum of money;" "A young lady drew a sigh;" "A ship draws water;" "A cook draws a fowl;" "A waiter draws a cork;" "Money draws interest;" "A minister draws comparisons;" etc. Small wonder the deaf child, at times, gets mixed in his use of English forms.

But let us go into the room of an advanced class, where we find pupils who have made the journey from the simpler forms of study to advanced recitations. The very walls of the room tell us how long a journey has been made. In the primary classroom, there were shelves of toys, dolls and numberless playthings. Here we have large books, large maps and big lessons. The Mother Goose and Sun-Bonnet Baby friezes of the begin-

ners are replaced by portraits of poets, historians, statesmen and philosophers. The pupils, some of them almost grown to manhood, are studying English grammar, English composition, English literature, physical geography, English and American history, mathematics, physics, civics, etc., studies very similar to those pursued in our higher public schools. It is hard to believe that all this work, all this understanding of speech is through sight alone, that hearing has had no part in the great work achieved.

An important feature of school work that most schools for the deaf emphasize is industrial or trade teaching. Every boy and girl is given opportunity to secure a knowledge of some good trade by which to support himself after leaving school. No less than sixty-eight different trades, varying with locality and demand, are taught in our American schools enabling their graduates to become immediately self-supporting. This great work gave origin to the splendid system of manual training now so popular in our large centres of population.

The state's attitude toward the education of these deaf children is a matter of great importance. In many European countries the matter is left either to the church or to charity. In our own country each state has assumed the responsibility of educating its deaf and blind children. This seems right when it is remembered that the parent of every such child pays taxes for the support of the public schools, the benefits of which his child cannot receive. It would seem right that in some way the state should make this good to the parent, and it can most certainly do so at less expense by sending these children to special central schools than by providing a school in each locality where two or three deaf or blind children may be found. A great majority of the states have erected buildings and assumed the support, in full, of so-called State Institutions, in some cases placing the supervision of the school in the hands of a State Board of Trustees, or in the control of the State Board of Education, or, as in some few states, in the hands of the State Board of Charities. A few more fortunate schools are under the control of private coroporations which, from time to time, have received endowments from generous benefactors; they own their own grounds and buildings, and receive pupils at cost from the state for resident pupils, but charge in full for non-resident pupils.

The growth of American schools for deaf children is some-

thing to be proud of. Less than one hundred years ago there was but one small school in existence. To-day there are one hundred and thirty, representing an investment of $15,000,000. The total cost of maintaining these schools last year was, in round numbers, $3,200,000 and the average per capita cost of tuition and maintenance was $260.

This is a large sum, but it pays. Most of the educated deaf are wholly self-supporting. They are found in almost every walk of life, as teachers, ministers, lawyers, doctors, dentists, newspaper men, architects, artists, civil engineers, chemists, railroad men, sailors, mechanics, farmers, stock raisers, etc. They support themselves and their families and are rarely found a burden to the communities in which they live. Fully ninety per cent of them are self-supporting, they are therefore in no sense to be considered a *dependent* class.

They lead normal Christian lives. They are rarely found among the law-breaking classes. They are quiet, unobtrusive and sober-minded. They are honest, industrious, temperate, loyal and faithful. They are for the most part, bearers of heavy burdens, workers with the hoe, but they are seldom found among the vicious, immoral and tainted classes of the community.

THE FEEBLE-MINDED BLIND.

BY EDWARD E. ALLEN, SUPERINTENDENT PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND, OVERBROOK, PA.

From one cause and another about 1 in each 1,200 of the population of the United States is blind; only one-fifth, or 12,000 of the total number being children. Through returns from field officer work, or personal visitation of the blind of Pennsylvania, I am able to state that about one-sixth of the blind children already recorded are also feeble-minded. On this basis there would seem to be 133 of these doubly afflicted children in Pennsylvania, and in the whole country about 2,000. All these are practically unprovided for. Some of these mentally afflicted young people get into schools for the blind, where they are always a serious problem. At the International Conference on the Blind held last summer at Edinburgh a paper by an authority on

the subject, prepared from world-wide correspondence, was read, the conclusions of which were that because these defective blind children are afflicted in one or more of the following ways, "Slow in perception, lacking in truthfulness and reasoning and muscular power, of strong immoral tendency, of unclean habits, peculiarity of speech and indistinctness of articulation, destructive, extremely active or extremely inactive, weak in will power and prone to uncontrollable fits of temper, stubborn, and requiring coaxing, feeble and slouching in gait, quaint movements of head and body, slow circulation, cold, clammy hands," therefore, when admitted into schools for the blind, they not only absorb undue energy from caretakers and teachers but also exert a deteriorating influence on the rest; hence, they should not be received into a school for the blind.

Now our schools for the blind have for their very definite object the preparation of their pupils for efficiency in the community at large; while our institutions for the feeble-minded entertain no such expectation, but rather hope to retain all their children under guardianship until they die. The difference is as between white and black. Blind children of intelligence not only can be but are more and more being educated to the plane of efficiency. The matter is by no means so difficult as is supposed. To-day blind young people in large numbers are graduated every year with school diplomas or certificates of proficiency in some occupation like piano tuning and massage; and the percentage of life successes is constantly increasing. The question is, then, how to enlarge the proportion of the efficient. I reply:

1. To increase the number completing the school course.

2. To inspire as many as possible with the assurance of becoming efficient in life through a knowledge of the very many who have already become so.

3. To educate the public who are to employ them to believe in them through practical experience of their capacity.

Hope and encouragement are the great incentives to achievement and success. Therefore, the blind who are wonderfully susceptible to these influences, have got to be trained in an inspiring environment. I tell you environment is all in all to the blind at school; they rarely grow to efficiency in spite of it.

The presence of children of feeble mind among those of normal mind vitiates the environment. They are blind, to be

sure, but are of a totally different class, and so they tend to lower the grade of achievement and to keep the training of the blind on a lower plane. To do so is an economic loss. It may be charity, but not according to the modern idea of charity; it is certainly not justice. And where is the social utility of it? The idea of compassion is no longer the basic idea in the education of the blind. Unless institutions are given every opportunity to succeed with a handicapped class which it undertakes to educate for efficiency, their standard of effectiveness is lowered and the very end and aim of their existence remain unfulfilled.

It is not that the defective blind are not wanted there, but that they are out of place there; they absorb too much of the teacher's time and attention and keep back the achievement of the normal pupils. The teacher of intelligent blind children needs to give all her best energies to lifting up and pushing them so as to keep them to the maximum accomplishment all the time. The more I am associated with sightless young people the more I am convinced that they have greater potentiality than is commonly supposed; but that they require much more natural and artificial spurring on, if they are going to accomplish anything in life, than do the seeing whose future is so much more assured. The presence of the feeble-minded not only minimizes the teachers' effort, but lowers the normal pupils' standard of work, and lessens their aspirations and final accomplishment. It also injures their standing with the world which, before employing the blind must believe in them.

What shall be done with these doubly afflicted children? Their principal defect is their feeble-mindedness; their blindness is but superficial. Like all other feeble-minded children they need parental and permanent custodial care. Hence, some provision should be made for them at institutions for the feeble-minded. What form this provision should take must be left to the superintendents of those institutions to determine.

THE INTERMARRIAGE OF COUSINS.

BY WILLIAM W. LONGSTRETH, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The experience of every race and of every age shows that the intermarriage of relatives leads to the degeneracy of the offspring

and the extinction of the family. The children of such marriages are liable to diseases of the brain and nervous system and are subject to insanity, idiocy, and epilepsy; to defective sight, speech and hearing; and to consumption, diabetes and asthma. The tendency of these defects to afflict the same person or to appear in the same family, either in the same form or interchanging from generation to generation, is shown in the statistics of institutions and of medical examiners of life insurance companies.

Afflictions that exist from birth (congenital) or that occur in early life, like idiocy, blindness and deaf-mutism are more frequent with males, insanity, a disease of mature life, with females, as shown by the table given in the tenth census (1880).

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Insane	48,271	51,729	100,000
Idiots	58,923	41,077	100,000
Blind	54,668	45,332	100,000
Deaf-Mutes	54,805	45,195	100,000

Color blindness, which is almost always congenital, is mostly confined to males and congenital malformations are more frequent with boys than girls.

In many European countries those contracting marriage are asked whether relationship exists between them. The most recent available statistics so obtained are as follows:

FIRST COUSIN MARRIAGES PER 1000 MARRIAGES.

Prussia	7.8	Italy	6.6
Bavaria	8.6	France	13.

In England, where official statistics are not collected on this subject, Mr. (now Sir) George H. Darwin in a paper read in 1875 before the Statistical Society, formulated a system based on the frequency of same name marriages, for ascertaining the frequency of consanguineous marriages. He found that the report of the Registrar General contained 33,000 names, and that the chances of marriages between persons having the same surnames, according to the law of probabilities, is about 1 per 1,000 marriages. He also found that of 144 same name marriages in Burke's Landed Gentry, just one-half were between first cousins. He also estimates that marriages between first cousins having the same surnames, to marriages between first cousins having differ-

ent surnames is as 1 is to 4. To multiply same name first cousin marriages by five will accordingly give the total number of first cousin marriages. The table given below represents George H. Darwin's conclusions:

FIRST COUSIN MARRIAGES PER 1,000 MARRIAGES.

Peerage	45.	Rural District	22.5
Landed Gentry	37.5	London	15.6

American marriage records, when examined according to Sir G. H. Darwin's method show that consanguineous unions are less frequent here than in England. They vary greatly in different States, being most numerous in older settled communities, notably Massachusetts, and at different periods. The following statistics are taken from early marriage records of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and the marriages of consanguinity are obtained by allowing one same-name marriage per 1,000 to be between unrelated or distantly related persons, one-half of the remaining same-name marriages are estimated to be between first cousins, and the same first cousin marriages, when multiplied by 5 give the total of first cousin marriages, and the remaining half are multiplied by 10 to obtain the second cousin marriages.

MARRIAGES PREVIOUS TO 1800 (MOSTLY FROM 1750 TO 1800.)

STATE.	NO. MARRIAGES.	SAME NAME MARRIAGES.	SAME NAME PER 1,000.	FIRST COUSINS.	SECOND COUSINS.
Mass.	10,000	231	23.1	5.5%	11.%
Conn.	10,000	123	12.3	2.8%	5.6%
N. J.	10,000	107	10.7	2.4%	4.8%
Penn.	10,000	...	....	.....	.....
Quakers	5,000	40	8.	.....	4.4%
Non Quakers.	5,000	27	5.4	1.75%	3.50%

The same name marriage rate in Massachusetts fell to 10 per 1,000 in the period 1800 to 1850. The deplorable results of such consanguineous marriages are seen in the prevalence of diseases of the brain and nervous system among the native stock of New England. The insane in the United States amount to somewhat less than 2 per 1,000 of the population; in Massachusetts the insane amount to 3 per 1,000, the same rate that holds in England. In the Western and newly settled States insanity

and allied diseases are less frequent than along the Atlantic sea board.

The marriages of Snyder County, an agricultural district in Central Pennsylvania, compared with those of Philadelphia, show that marriages of consanguinity are more frequent in the country than in large cities, and together they give the present consanguineous rate for the States.

County.	Period.	Number.	Same Name.	Same Name Per 1,000.
Snyder	1835–1899	6,469	35	5.4
Philadelphia	1901	10,000	33	3.3

Allowing one-fourth of the population of the State to live in large cities, and three-fourths to live in the counties, the same name marriages amount to about 5 per 1,000; or ten per 1,000 are between first cousins and 20 per 1,000 between second cousins, in short 1 per cent. are first cousin and first cousin once removed marriages, and 2 per cent. second cousin and second cousin once removed marriages.

"An act making it unlawful for first cousins to be joined in marriage and declaring all marriages contracted after the 1st day of January A. D. 1902, in violation of this act, void" passed by the Legislature of this State (House Bill 317) has not had the effect of reducing the rate of same name marriages in Philadelphia, whatever effect it may have had in the interior counties. Among the mass of the population of Philadelphia it seems to be disregarded and by the more intelligent it is avoided by having the marriage ceremony performed in adjoining states.

Among religious bodies made up of unassimilated immigrant population consanguineous marriages are frequent. This seems to be the case among the Slavonic adherents of the Greek Church in the anthracite coal district, judging from the prevalence of congenital deaf-mutism among them, and it is certainly so among the Mennonites and Jews. The Mennonites were among the earliest immigrants to Pennsylvania, but retaining the use of the German language and their peculiar customs, they constantly lost to other denominations and gained few, if any, recruits, so that their numbers were estimated in the Census of 1890, by multiplying their church membership by $2\frac{1}{2}$ rather than by $3\frac{1}{2}$, the ratio for more popular Protestant bodies, at only 40,000, includ-

ing some other small bodies of kindred origin. This number has no doubt decreased so that their numbers probably do not amount to more than one-half of one per cent. of the population of the state. Their same-name marriage rate was about 14 per 1,000 marriages from 1800 to 1850. The Jews marry their relatives, according to Mr. Joseph Jacobs and other authorities, about three times as frequently as Gentiles. In Alsace-Lorraine the first cousin marriage rate among Jews was 2.4 per 1,000 marriages, so that Mr. Jacobs' estimate is probably too great rather than not sufficient. The deplorable results of such close intermarriages are seen in the statistics of Prussia and other German States which take cognizance of the religious beliefs of the people.

AFFLICTED PER 10,000 OF THE POPULATION.

	Jews.	Gentiles.
Blind	13.34	9.45
Congenital Blind	8.	4.70
Deaf Mutes	14.88	9.96
Congenital Deaf Mutes	6.5	3.4
Insane	35.23	22.57
Idiots	23.52	17.37

The excess of the blind and deaf-mutes among the Jews is mostly due to the excess of congenital blindness and deaf-mutism among that people. A Jewish physician of New York City has estimated that "Jews suffer about three times more often than others from diabetes," a disease of the kidneys, but closely connected with the nervous health. Jews also have more male births than the surrounding Gentile population and have more twins. Color blindness is considerably and near sightedness somewhat more prevalent with them than others.

On the other hand, their temperate habits, the observance of the laws of Moses and the care of the health characteristic of nervous people, have given the Jews a greater longevity than Gentiles, and the long sharpening of their minds by generations given to study and exercised in trade has caused them, it is believed, to produce 100 per cent. more men of genius than the same number of their neighbors.

DEAF AND DUMB.

Institutions for the training of deaf and dumb children and for other classes of the afflicted, present blanks to be filled out

by the parents giving information regarding the cause of the degeneracy and the family history. The morbid suspicion that most persons have toward any inquiries regarding an hereditary disease or family failing render these blanks of less value than they would seem at first sight to have. The question, whether the parents are related by blood is often left unanswered, and sometimes answered untruthfully by a negative.

Two other questions, sometimes asked, are more readily answered, viz.: "What church do you attend?" and "What was the maiden name of the mother?"

The Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, had in 1902, 502 children receiving instruction. Four hundred and ninety-eight application papers were examined.

PARENTAGE.

	Number.	Born Deaf.	Not Born Deaf.	1st Cousin.	2nd Cousin.	Distant.	Same Name.
Mennonite..	8	5	3	1	..	..	1
Hebrews ..	22	13	9	1	1	..	1
Others	468	188	280	6	13	5	5

Of the 27 of admittedly consanguineous parentage, 15 were born deaf and 12 not born deaf.

One hundred and eighty children were admitted to the Institution during 1903-4-5.

	Born Deaf.	Per Cent.	Not Born Deaf.	Per Cent.
109 Boys	46	42.5	63	57.5
71 Girls	28	39.5	43	60.5

PARENTAGE.

	Number.	Born Deaf.	Not Born Deaf.	Cousins.	Distant.	Same Name.
Mennonites ..	5	4	1	..	..	..
Hebrews	11	5	6	3	..	..
Others	164	65	99	3	1	3

Of the 7 children admitted of consanguineous parentage, 5 were born deaf. Of the total of 668 children, whose application papers were examined, 10 were of same-name parentage, which gives a rate of about 15 per 1,000 or three times that of the state.

The Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children be-

fore they are of school age, Belmont and Monument avenues, Philadelphia, had in 1902, 62 children under instruction.

PARENTAGE.

	No.	Born Deaf.	Not Born Deaf.	Cousins.	2nd Cousins.	Distant
Mennonites ..	2	2	..	..	..	..
Hebrews	14	9	5	4	..	..
Others	46	..	..	..	..	..

The Volta Bureau, at Washington, established and endowed by the generosity of Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, for the investigation and diffusion of information relating to the deaf, published in 1898 a voluminous work entitled, "Marriages of the Deaf in America," by Dr. Edward Allen Fay. The object of the work was to ascertain what proportion of the children of deaf parents inherit their infirmity, but when analyzed gives valuable information regarding consanguinuity in producing deafness.

	Born Deaf.	Not Born Deaf.	Not Specified.	Not Deaf.	Total.
Husbands ...	1,204	2,077	809	379	4,469
Wives	1,199	1,930	841	499	4,469

In the above table about 25 per cent. of the cases are congenital. In 363 cases the parentage was admittedly consanguineous.

	Born Deaf.	Not Born Deaf.	Not Specified.	Not Deaf.	Total.
Husbands ...	114	61	10	..	185
Wives	103	62	12	1	178

In the above table nearly 75 per cent. were congenital, and the excess of males is due to the excess of congenitally defective husbands.

In about one-third of the above the defect may be attributed in part to the intensifying effect of marriages of consanguinity, in about two-thirds to the creative effect of such marriages alone.

Eight thousand nine hundred and thirty-eight husbands and wives had 1,369 instances of deaf relatives; 363 husbands and wives of consanguineous parentage had in 115 cases deaf relatives; in both cases other than immediate relatives.

Marriages of deaf mutes are often with deaf mutes, and the following table shows the chances of such marriages producing deaf children.

	Number Marriages.	Marriages Having Deaf Offspring.	Per Cent.
Both partners deaf	2,377	200	9.2
Partners consanguineous...	31	14	45.1

In the case of the 2,377 marriages, like marries like, and the deafness is thereby more likely to result. In the latter case the creative tendency of marriages between blood kin is shown in connection with the intensifying factor of the union of persons having like heredity. Of the 31 marriages between relatives, more than half were between one hearing person and one deaf person.

	Number.	Marriages With Deaf Offspring.	Per Cent.
Both Partners Deaf.....	12	5	41.6
One Deaf, the other hearing....	18	9	50
One Deaf, the other unspecified..	1	..	..

Several French physicians, notably M. M. Boudin and Devay, collected statistics on the parentage of congenital mutes in asylums in France about fifty years ago.

Location of Asylum.	Consanguineous Parentage.	Non-Consanguineous Parentage.	Total.	Percentage of Consanguineous Parentage.
Paris	19	48	67	28
Bordeaux	27	62	89	30

This list, which could be extended to include many institutions in France, indicates that more than 25 per cent. of congenital deaf mutes were the issue of related parents, at a time, when first cousin marriages amounted to 8 or 9 per 1,000.

M. Boudin, in his monograph, gives a map of France, showing the geographical distribution of deaf-mutism according to departments. The total number of deaf-mutes was 21,576, of whom 12,325 were male and 9,251 were females and their proportion to the general population was one to 1,669. They were comparatively few in the populous departments and many in the mountainous districts, due to the frequency, no doubt, of marriages of consanguinity among a scattered population, e. g.:

Haute Alpes one deaf mute to..... 419 of the population.
Haute Pyrennees one deaf mute to.... 677 of the population.
Corsica one deaf mute to..... 686 of the population.

To sum up the data herewith presented, it may be safely said that the 3 cousin-marriages per 100 in Pennsylvania produce from 15 per cent. to 20 per cent. of the deaf-mutes in the state in the first generation, and that including hereditary effect from 30 per cent. to 40 per cent. of deaf-mutism may be assigned to this one cause. This rate probably holds good for all other degeneracies.

No one other cause, unless it be intemperance, does so much to produce physical, mental and moral degeneracy and to people the world, to quote an eloquent writer on this subject, with a "population which bewails its birth, its existence and its offspring."

AIMS AND POSSIBILITIES OF THE NEW INSTITUTION FOR FEEBLE-MINDED AND EPILEPTICS.

BY J. M. MURDOCH, M. D., SUPERINTENDENT STATE INSTITUTION FOR FEEBLE-MINDED OF WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA.

It is unnecessary to take up the time of this section in a presentation of the many reasons why the State should make provision for the care, training and treatment of its feeble-minded and epiletics as I am sure we all recognize in the feeble-minded and epileptics a class quite as dangerous to the welfare of the body politic as the insane or the criminal.

The best obtainable information in regard to the defective classes shows that in Pennsylvania there are at the present time about 15,000 feeble-minded and epileptics. Of these about 1,200 are in the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children at Elwyn, a like number in the State Institution for Feeble-minded of Western Pennsylvania at Polk, and about 100 in the Epileptic colonies at Oakbourne and Zelienople; that is, about 2,500 in the institutions in the state designed to meet the special needs of this class of defectives. A large number of feeble-minded and epileptics are being cared for in the state

and county hospitals for the insane and the county almshouses. In these institutions there are probably 2,500 more.

In the state hospitals for the insane in Eastern Pennsylvania alone there are in the neighborhood of 1,000 feeble-minded and epileptics who, according to the superintendents of these institutions, should be in an institution designed to meet their special requirements.

Within the last week I have received an urgent appeal from the superintendent of one of the hospitals in Eastern Pennsylvania for the admission into the institution under my charge of a feeble-minded child who was committed to his hospital as insane when but six years of age.

Dr. Barr, as Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-Minded Children at Elwyn, in his report for 1905, states that they have 2,241 applications on file for the admission of feeble-minded and epileptic persons, all of whom are wholly dependent or delinquent, who require custodial care, but the majority of whom are not suitable for care and training in a school devoted specially to the training of feeble-minded children. From the foregoing facts we see that, although Pennsylvania is doing as much or more than any other State in the Union for the care, training and treatment of its defectives, there is urgent need of additional accommodations for the feeble-minded and epileptics of the state either by the extension of the present institutions or by establishing new ones.

It is but little more than fifty years since the care of the feeble-minded was begun in this State by James B. Richards, who came from Boston in 1852 and opened a private school in Germantown. In 1854 the necessity of providing for indigent feeble-minded children was presented to the Legislature, who granted an appropriation of $10,000 to carry on the work and provide for ten State beneficiary pupils. In 1859 the school was transferred to its present location, a most beautiful site selected by Miss Dorothea L .Dix, near Media. The new location was named Elwyn in honor of Dr. Alfred Elwyn, a prominent physician in Philadelphia much interested in the welfare of the feeble-minded. This school has continued as a private institution with state patronage and is to-day one of the best and most famous schools for the feeble-minded in the world, caring for in the neighborhood of 1,200 inmates. It is particularly well equipped

for the training of those feeble-minded children who are susceptible of a considerable degree of development by special educational facilities.

In 1893, the Elwyn school being greatly crowded, the Legislature passed a bill providing for a State Institution for Feeble-Minded, to be located in Western Pennsylvania and providing an appropriation of $250,000 for the purchase of the land and to begin the erection of the buildings. Polk, beautifully situated among the hills of Venango county, was selected as the site and after consulting with those in charge of the important institutions of a similar nature throughout the world, plans were prepared and buildings erected which are most admirably adapted for their purpose. This institution was opened for the reception of children in the spring of 1897, just nine years ago, 154 children being transferred from Elwyn. This institution to-day is caring for 1,200 feeble-minded and epileptics. The removal of 154 children from Elwyn and the fact that that institution was no longer called upon to care for children from the western end of the State gave them relief for a time; however, their waiting list was long and it was but a short time until they were as crowded as ever and the number of applications, particularly for the admission of the lower grade of the feeble-minded, greater than ever. They were besieged on all sides to admit more children than they could possibly care for adequately. This condition of affairs, coupled with the pressing need for provision for epileptics, resulted in the Legislature, in 1903, passing an act for the establishing of a State Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics in Eastern Pennsylvania.

The act creating the Eastern Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics provided for a Commission of five to select a site and erect the buildings, appropriating $50,000 to begin operations. The Legislature in 1905 appropriated $500,000 to continue the work. The building commission selected a site at Spring City, Chester County, and have prepared plans and will receive bids which will be opened in a few days. From Dr. Fitzsimmons, one of the commission who is present, we shall no doubt hear more definitely in regard to the plans of the commission.

It is an open question whether in establishing this Institution the State was wise in establishing it as an Institution for the feeble-minded and epileptic or whether it should

not have been made exclusively an institution for epileptics. From personal experience I see no objection to caring for the feeble-minded and epileptic in the same institution. The needs of the epileptics and feeble-minded are similar and as practically all epileptics who will be cared for in an institution are mentally deficient I think no mistake was made in making the non-epileptic feeble-minded eligible for admission as well as his brother afflicted with epilepsy.

Of the feeble-minded from 25 to 30 per cent are afflicted with epilepsy, while of the epileptic according to the report of the Craig Colony for Epileptics in New York, 98 per cent are mentally deficient. Epilepsy and feeble-mindedness are intimately associated. There are many cases in which a previously bright child afflicted with epilepsy falls into a state of mental hebetude but as a rule both the feeble-mindedness and epilepsy are the result of a common apotentiality of the nervous system. The mental condition of the inmates in an epileptic colony and the mental condition of those found in a colony exclusively for the feeble-minded is about the same. The feeble-minded and epileptics are congenial, their needs are very much the same, and it is my opinion that they should be grouped in regard to their mental condition rather than in regard to the relatively less important factor as to whether they are or are not subject to epileptic seizures.

I am aware that objection has been raised to colonizing the feeble-minded and epileptics together but after our experience in Western Pennsylvania and observing the results in other institutions in other States caring for both feeble-minded and epileptics I can find no reasonable objection to the plan.

The need for the Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics in Eastern Pennsylvania is great. The State is fast recognizing the importance of the care of all classes of defectives and what is now considered advisable will soon be considered an imperative demand. The act creating this Institution has been drawn on broad lines giving the Building Commission and Board of Trustees opportunities for the creation of an institution second to none in the world. I predict a great future for this Institution. It will be a haven of rest where the feeble in mind may find comfort and happiness coupled with useful employment,

protected from the storms of a thoughtless world unappreciative of the irresponsibility of these defective ones.

It requires no prophetic vision to predict that the community will be made vastly better by the removal from its midst of this waste material, this bi-product, which blocks the way in the onward progress toward a higher civilization.

AIMS AND POSSIBILITIES OF THE NEW INSTITUTION FOR FEEBLE MINDED AND EPILEPTICS, AT SPRING CITY, PA.

BY T. C. FITZSIMMONS, M. D., MEMBER OF THE STATE COMMISSION.

When a great Commonwealth like Pennsylvania inaugurates a system of custody and education for her mental defectives, or adds to a successful system, already being carried on in the most approved manner, it is cause sufficient for some one conversant with and associated in the work to briefly state what has been done and what is the course to be pursued in the future.

The founding of the new Institution for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics at Spring City, was authorized by a Legislative enactment passed during the session of 1903. One week after signing the measure the Governor appointed a Commission to carry out the provisions of the Act.

The institution is destined to fill a long felt want in the Eastern part of the State, namely a home where the weak-minded and epileptics — now scattered throughout the various almshouses and Insane Asylums — may be received, treated and restored to some degree at least of self-reliance — where they can be made, as far as possible, self-sustaining and where there can be imparted to them the rudiments, at least, of some simple art or craft, which will suffice to train their minds in a regular channel.

The Commission has visited many Institutions of a similar nature, in this and other states, and has endeavored to cull from each their best ideas, and has tried to weave all these good features into one harmonious whole.

The first duty of the Commission was to select a proper site. We visited and carefully examined several sites in the Eastern part of the State. After canvassing all of the features of each

location visited, the Commission unanimously decided upon that at Spring City. No more advantageously situated grounds could have been selected. It is located in the heart of the beautiful Schuylkill Valley, thirty-three miles north of Philadelphia, on the lines of the Philadelphia & Reading and Pennsylvania Railroads, and is easily accessible from all sections of the State. The lands, which are fertile and under a high state of cultivation, consist of nearly three hundred acres, thirty of which are wooded and suitable for parks and groves. The buildings will occupy a commanding position on the hillside, overlooking the valley of the Schuylkill.

One of the most important needs of a public institution is an abundant supply of pure water. We propose sinking a sufficient number of artesian wells to afford a generous supply of good, soft water, which will be stored in scientifically constructed reservoirs.

The second important duty devolving on the Commission was to determine the form of Institution best adapted to the needs. After much consideration, the system of cottages, connected by corridors was decided upon. The architectural designs adopted for the buildings are the results of careful study and wide investigation and research. We have called to our aid experts and have carefully weighed their recommendations and advice. Drs. Snyder and Bell, my medical associates on the Commission, have, in conjunction with myself, carefully gone over every feature of the plans and specifications. The work has been thoroughly done. We now have good reason to believe that we shall give to the State, not only one of the best, but the *very* best Institution of the kind in this or any other State in the Union.

The Spring City Institution will be modern in all that the word implies, it will not be gaudily ornamented nor unduly costly, but all things pertaining to either the institution or its administration will be suited to the work in hand.

There are at present on the Institution grounds five brick houses which were occupied by the farmers previous to our purchase of the estate. These we propose renovating and remodelling — which can be readily and inexpensively done. In these we propose to place the male epileptics to the number of one hundred and twenty. We will thus be enabled to carry out, in a

limited way, the Colony System which is meeting with success in New York, Ohio, Massachusetts, New Jersey and other States.

A feature that will receive careful attention will be the proper classification of the inmates, for this we believe to be the keynote of the success of an Institution. All things considered the number of imbeciles (I leave out of this consideration idiots) — who cannot be interested in some simple art or handicraft is small.

Without a thoroughly trained corps of earnest, willing and devoted teachers, instructors, nurses and attendants no real progress can be made along the lines of mental energizing. The Medical Superintendent may be never so gifted and capable, yet, unless he surrounds himself with associates thoroughly in earnest and loyally devoted to the work, he cannot hope for success. With a view to securing the best of instructors it is our purpose to establish a training school for nurses and attendants. As this Training School will be the source from whence to draw our staff of instructors, we purpose giving exacting attention to the kind of knowledge imparted by the medical instructors.

Teachers and instructors in institutions for Feeble-Minded and Epileptics should possess maternal and paternal instincts, be painstaking, kind and indulgent as to minor faults in the children — they must be self-sacrificing and deeply and thoroughly in earnest in the work.

I believe that attendants should work with the patients taking the lead in whatever they are doing. Such a proceeding dignifies labor and instructor and pupils join agreeably in the work before them.

I have always believed that a system of compensating the inmates for profitable labor performed for and in behalf of the Institution is of great advantage alike to the patient and the State. It is a tedious prospect to be compelled to labor day in and day out without the hope of any reward. Few indeed are they who are so dull of comprehension as not to feel gratified over the prospect of receiving rewards at stated intervals. Such a system of remuneration for profitable labor, rendered by the inmates, will be established at Spring City, and I hope, when we meet a year hence that I shall be able to present a careful statistical report to this conference upon this subject.

Of all the avocations of man, that of husbandry is pre-

eminent. It was man's first intelligent effort, and it appears to be the most easily taught and readily acquired.

It is the purpose of the Commission to acquire more land as soon after the opening of the Institute as possible. It is hoped to increase the estate from three hundred to seven hundred acres and to then conduct farming on an extensive scale.

Many of the inmates will not only be capable of assisting in the work of caring for the crops, the dairy products, the fruits and vegetables, but they will be greatly benefited by a sufficient amount of light outdoor work.

With regard to the educational or mechanical department, it is proposed to install a sufficient corps of trained teachers and instructors to teach the elements, at least, of such crafts as broom, brush and shoemaking — clay-modelling, weaving and simple carpentry — and other forms of light manual labor. As the patient progresses, additional branches can be added. With this is to be connected the regular school department, where the fundamentals of reading, writing and simple arithmetic will be taught.

The medical department, is intended to be occupied, not only in the actual work of caring for the health of the inmates, but also in maintaining a system of detailed reports, which, in a few years, will be of vast assistance to students and experts in this line of work.

Provision will be made for the proper observance of religious worship, and the preferences of the patients — where they are old enough to understand and appreciate such denominational differences — will as far as possible, be carefully considered.

Among adult epileptics, many have strong convictions of religion and find in their devotion unspeakable consolation. In the new institution it will be the design to surround the inmates — as far as possible — with the benign influence of religion, and to enkindle in their souls the love of God and His Holy Word.

Not the least of the aims and possibilities at the Spring City Institute for the enlightenment, mental strengthening and general up-building is music. No single feature, known to mankind, has the same far-reaching and penetrating effect on the human understanding.

During the past few years I have visited many of the best institutions in this country and have frequently conversed with

the parents of imbecile children, and, during my twenty-two years of practice I have been consulted often by apprehensive parents relative to placing their feeble minded children in institutions. I have been deeply impressed to see how keenly sensitive and abnormally anxious such parents were to ascertain the methods of treatment pursued in the State Institutions, especially what means were resorted to for the enforcement of discipline, and what form of punishment, if any, was inflicted. This appears to be the one great obstacle in the way of the proper custodial care of the children of all classes.

I unhesitatingly state — and I measure my words with due caution and consideration, for I know that I am about to make an extreme statement — that I deny the right or privilege of any mother or father to burden and afflict the other members of the family with a mentally incapable child. Neither should they be allowed to exercise their own personal judgment as to what degree of idiocy or imbecility in their children should necessitate their being placed in a suitable institution. That important matter should be left to the judgment of competent medical authority — physicians of both sexes — whose practice and training along these lines qualify them for the performance of such important and delicate duties.

The one obstacle in the way of readily inducing parents of imbecile or idiotic children to place them in suitable institutions is the fear, entirely unfounded as we know it to be, of the child not being kindly dealt with. Now I do not know that there is an institution in the land where corporal punishment is deemed necessary, and from actual experience, gained from visiting many of the very best institutions throughout the country, I can truthfully say that I have never encountered evidence of such treatment. That the subject has been ably discussed by many representatives here present I know, and I have read their views and opinions with deep and abiding interest.

My reason for adverting to this subject is in explanation of some of the real aims of the new institution. In regard to such aims I will say, that there will be no punishment, in the true sense of punishment, inflicted on any child, and that the parents of the afflicted ones may part from their charges with the perfect assurance that the care of each will be kindly, gentle and tenderly affectionate.

In conclusion let me say that the new Spring City Institute, located as it is within easy reach of all this section of the State, will overcome many obstacles which have heretofore stood in the way of parents of limited means, who looked forward with dread to the prospect of being separated from their afflicted ones by nearly the entire width of the State. It will do much to relieve the present overcrowded condition of our various institutions in this part of the State. While fully realizing that few, if any, cases can hope to be thoroughly cured, we believe that by the system contemplated the condition of many can be greatly improved and that they can at least be made self-sustaining inmates.

And finally, we believe that this institution will be of benefit to this section of the State, inasmuch as it will remove from the alms houses, insane asylums and similar institutions, a class that do not properly belong there — a class that they have inadequate, if any, means of properly caring for, and will install them in a modern, well-equipped home, where in the hands of properly trained teachers and instructors, their unfortunate condition, if it cannot be cured, will at least be alleviated to the full extent possible.

IX.

Immigration.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY JOSEPH LEE, VICE-PRESIDENT MASS. CIVIC LEAGUE, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN.

There is of course not time in one morning's discussion to present the whole subject of immigration. To present that whole subject would mean to discuss: (1) the question of whether under any circumstances it is right to keep out any moral, able-bodied, able-minded person; (2) whether there are any races or any classes of people whose coming is upon the whole a detriment; (3) whether, if so, it is our right to keep out any race as such; and (4) whether, if a class is undesirable, any practicable test can be devised. Among this whole range of questions I have secured two papers, one by Professor L. C. Marshall of Ohio Wesleyan University, upon "Race Effects of Immigration," dealing with questions of fact as to what races are coming and what proportion they at present bear to the former American stock; and secondly, a paper by Hon. William Williams, former United States Commissioner of Immigration at the port of New York, upon "Certain Features of Immigration together with Further Possible Restrictions." Dr. Maurice Fishberg, of New York, formerly Special Immigration Inspector, U. S. Bureau of Immigration, will open the discussion. As an introduction to these papers I wish to suggest certain reasons, not for believing in selection of immigration, but for considering the question of whether there ought to be such selection. I recognize that the question is not an easy one for the members of this conference to consider. The people to whom restriction will apply are very largely those in whose behalf we are engaged in our daily work. It is never easy to set up against considerations that are every day before our eyes other considerations which it requires an effort of the imagination to see at all. It is especially difficult to do this when our sympathies and our habitual daily interests are

* Discussion on Immigration, p. 591.

involved. It is difficult for a doctor — or at least for any good doctor — to judge fairly between the interests of his own patients and those of other people. As an instance of the feeling with which the practical charity worker naturally approaches this question, I have recently seen expressed, (not by editorial authority) in a publication to which we all, I hope, go for inspiration, a doubt whether *"there was any use in suggesting ethical considerations to a restrictionist."*

I must nevertheless ask you to face the inevitable pain of passing from an habitual and concentrated to a new and wider point of view, not to the extent of believing that selection of immigration is good, but to the extent of seeing that the problem of selection is a proper one to be considered, and that even the restrictionist may be guided by motives not wholly base. Conscientious charity people have experience within their own work of the truth that the apparently cruel view may be merely a wider one. You have yourselves been accused, by workers claiming a closer contact than your own with the facts of the case, of hardness of heart in not giving free soup and free coal; and you know that the refusal to regard the question of present suffering as paramount, whether justified or not, may at least be honestly made, and with motives as humane as those of your accusers.

I. The question of the selection of immigration, although it may be one not easy for us to approach without prejudice, is nevertheless germane to the work in which we are engaged. It is a part of the wider question of artificial selection. With this wider question this conference is not altogether unfamiliar; and it is one of which we shall increasingly recognize the importance. As a result of our determination that every child that is born shall live — a determination that we cannot go back from without losing the best of what our civilization has won — we are beginning to see that the question of who gets born is a vital one. Heredity is the mightiest social force there is. In abandoning the slow and cruel methods of natural selection, we have placed upon ourselves the necessity, if permanent and cumulative progress is to be secured, of adopting more humane methods in their stead. Already we are learning to widen the circle of custodial restraint and so to secure the progressive sterilization of the unfit. Even the trustees of girls' reform schools — matchmakers both by right of their special office and in virtue of the eternal prero-

gative of all good women — have perhaps already begun to question whether, all things considered, marriage may not sometimes be, from the point of view of the community, an expensive way of reforming a girl of defective moral sense. Immigration presents the greatest problem — some people think the greatest opportunity — in the way of artificial selection that has ever existed or that ever will exist. As compared with what we can accomplish by this means — provided that there are considerable differences of quality among the constituent parts of immigration — the results of all the rest of the work in which we are engaged will be of comparatively trifling importance.

II. It will perhaps help toward a judicial consideration of the problem if we realize that restriction of some sort will inevitably take place; that restriction is not a matter of choice on our part but an inevitable result of forces beyond our control; that if we do not adopt it voluntarily it will take place through the operation of natural laws. America is not infinitely large. It will in any case — in what, compared with the long future, must be regarded as a very short time — become so crowded that any further increase of the population — except at a comparatively slow rate — can be made only at the cost of lowering the general standard of prosperity. It is because that condition has already been reached in Europe and Asia that the problem of immigration exists. When the time of overcrowding comes, restriction will inevitably take place: either artificial restriction to preserve us from sinking below a certain point of poverty, or the natural restriction that will result when we have become so poor that there is no longer any temptation for any man in the world to change his lot for ours. America, in other words, is bound to fill up. The only question is — with whom? In the main, whoever does not come in before the period of saturation arrives will be forever kept out. Whoever does come in will — himself or his descendants — take the place of others for whom there would otherwise have been room. Every case of admission is also a case of exclusion; every case of exclusion of one man means the admission of some one else, or one more place left for the natural increase of the native stock. Standing beside the man who is kept out we must learn to see the other man for whom his exclusion will leave a place. We must learn to see that exclusion is not a piece of wanton cruelty against certain individuals, but a

choice between two sets of individuals claiming what cannot by any possibility be awarded to both.

It is true that we need not take the responsibility of making the choice ourselves; we can leave it to those "natural" forces which, until we did begin to make some sort of selection, were giving us so large a share of the pauper, the criminal, and the insane.

III. In approaching this question we must take the highest point of view and the widest. It is a question not to be settled solely by the desire of labor for higher wages nor by the desire of capital for more workers and larger dividends. It is a question not of what is best for us who happen to live in America at the present moment, but of what is best for the whole world and for all time.

Mr. Brandenburg's theory that the question should be decided by the native-born is a very extraordinary one. How it would be possible to separate the native-born from other citizens, I do not know, and if it were possible, it would be extremely undesirable. It is for this reason that no restriction on naturalization will solve our problem. Once a man is here, he is an American. We want no Helot class. It is for the very reason that when a man is once here he is one of the family, that we should be careful whom we admit. But in considering the question from this point of view it would seem as though the permanent interests of America are the most important. The effect upon Europe is a temporary one. From whatever class our immigration is drawn, the gaps will soon be filled. There are six times as many Englishmen in England as there were when the first great emigration took place. And there are as many English sparrows there to-day as there were before we imported some of them to drive out our native birds. From the European point of view it is simply a question of which stratum of European society shall be allowed to increase and multiply, — the prosperous or the unprosperous; the able, successful, self-governing, or the incompetent, the beaten, the degraded. But it is in America and not in Europe that the effects of our choice will be felt.

(1) The interests of America, on the other hand, are affected in two ways, both of which are of permanent importance. There is the economic effect and the effect upon racial character. One thing we are trying to accomplish in this country is the wid-

ening of the outlook and the possibilities of life among the people as a whole. This standard can never be much raised — at least among the poorer members of our society — so long as every rise is accompanied and followed by an enormous influx of immigratin from a constantly widening water-shed, including the inexhaustible springs of European and Asiatic population. So long as this vast influx is unchecked, there can be no great and permanent raising of the level of American conditions until the lowest swamp of Europe or of Asia has been drained.

(2) That the racial effects of immigration upon this country, whether for good or evil, will be permanent we shall all, I think, agree. For heredity is a permanent and abiding force. Nobody expects that as a result of contact with American institutions the Negro will in any number of generations become white. And the inborn moral and mental characteristics appear to be as constant as the color of the skin. Closely in accordance with the inherited character which our immigrants bring with them will be the influence which, to the end of time, their coming will exert.

It is true that education may effect much. Education is a mighty word, including the total effect of institutions and of the whole environment. But in the long run a people will modify its institutions as truly as the institutions will modify the people. Especially is this true in a democracy. Those who believe that the chief mission of this country is to be an asylum for the oppressed forget that ours differs from all other asylums in being governed by its inmates. When we gave notice to our former superintendent, George III., that his services were no longer required — that henceforth the patients would control in their own wards — we placed upon ourselves the necessity that thereafter we should carefully scrutinize the qualifications for admission. It is said that many of our present immigrants are in low estate not because of any fault or lack on their part, but because of the kind of government they have lived under. In such cases it is important to consider whether there is any relation between the character of the people and the sort of government they have submitted to or evolved.

Institutions, in America at least, will in the end accurately reflect the abiding character of the people. If the people were to become half Chinese, or half of South European, or half of Alpine or of Irish stock, our politics, our schools, and all our

institutions would inevitably reflect the change, — and the same will be true of any state or section. The ultimate result of immigration will be determined not by the effect of American institutions as we now know them upon the resulting population, but by the effect upon such population of our institutions as modified, for better or worse, by the native character and genius of the races and classes of people whom we admit.

IV. Immigration restriction has proceeded partly upon race lines. Some people, restrictionists and others, hold that such discrimination is unjust. But is it necessarily so? If it were now possible, by means of an exclusion law, to eliminate the Negro question from the South or the Indian question from the West, would the adoption of such a measure be wrong? Would it be unjust to keep two races apart whose coming together has been in the opinion of those most closely cognizant of the effects, productive of great evils of which the end cannot even yet be foreseen? Of course, such a test will not work well in every case. An earlier adoption and stricter enforcement of the laws against the slave trade would have deprived us of Booker Washington. The question is not whether such a test works perfectly in every case, but whether upon the whole it is a benefit to us and to mankind.

Nor is the question of race exclusion utterly a question of inferiority. It is a partly a question of difference. A person may well believe that the Chinaman is our equal or our superior, and yet may favor Chinese exclusion upon the ground that the two civilizations will not mix. He may believe that America has a mission to perform which cannot be fulfilled if our population becomes to any great extent Mongolian; and yet he may at the same time, and as a result of the very same conviction, rejoice that China has at last awakened and proclaimed to the world that hereafter the conduct of Chinese affairs will be wholly and aggressively Chinese.

V. With European immigration the question is of selection not by race but by class; the question of race is relevant only so far as a given class which it may be proposed to exclude is more numerous in one race than is another.

Even in the matter of class restriction the question is not entirely one of inferiority to the present American stock. If there is a large class of European immigrants which — though

not actually pauper, criminal, or insane — is nevertheless, in character or physique, below the average of American citizenship, that class, in the opinion of restrictionists, should be excluded, not only because such exclusion will leave more room for the increase of the native-born, but also because it will make more room for persons of European stock who are equal to or even — if such a thing is not incredible — above the American average.

VI. If there is any such class as that above described as desirable to exclude, can we find any test under which they can, upon the whole, be excluded without keeping out an equal number of desirable immigrants? The question here — the test of a test — is not whether a given exclusion will work well in every case, whether it will exclude all whom we should like to keep out and not exclude any whom we would like to let in; but whether, upon the whole, it will keep out more of the former than of the latter, and so improve the quality of our immigration and the permanent standard of our citizenship.

THE NEW IMMIGRATION: SOME UNFAVORABLE FEATURES AND POSSIBLE REMEDIES.

BY WILLIAM WILLIAMS, FORMER U. S. COMMISSIONER OF IMMIGRATION OF NEW YORK.

Every speaker on immigration should state at the outset the point of view from which he approaches this vast and difficult subject. That there may be no doubt of mine, I will say that I have as little sympathy with those who would curtail all immigration as I have with those who would admit all intending immigrants, good, bad or indifferent. I shall waste no time arguing with such as would repeal any of our present laws relating to the excluded classes, for with the exception of contract laborers, whom I will refer to later, such classes obviously include mere scum or refuse, persons whom no country could possibly want. My position may be briefly stated as follows: I am convinced that a certain minority of the present immigration is undesirable and that if some means can be found to prevent this undesirable minority from coming here, not only will we be greatly

benefited, but we are likely to attract more immigrants of the better kind.

The principal classes now excluded, besides contract laborers, are the following: Idiots; insane persons; epileptics; paupers; persons likely to become public charges; persons with loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases; convicted criminals; anarchists; polygamists. A mere reading of this list should suffice to show that our laws could not be less exacting without exposing the country to positive danger. Their strict execution makes it possible to keep out what may be termed the riffraff, or the very worst element of Europe. Without them thousands of additional aliens would enter the country every year of a far lower grade than any now here. But between the manifestly undesirable elements included in the Statute and the really desirable immigrant there is a great gulf, to bridge which no legislative attempt has yet been made. To deny the existence of such a gulf is to place one's self in opposition to the observation of everyday life. I am at this point not concerned with the question whether or not laws can be framed which will correctly describe the class lying between the pauper and the desirable immigrant. I wish merely to emphasize what must be known to every thinking person, that this class exists, *and that we are making no effort to exclude it.*

It cannot be too often repeated that for several reasons the problem presented by what may be termed the new immigration of recent years is widely different from that presented by the earlier immigration. In considering the problem as it exists today, two propositions must constantly be borne in mind.

(1) Most of the immigration proceeds, not as formerly from the northern portion of Europe, but from Italy, Austria and Russia, and some of it from the poorest and least desirable population of those countries. No one could object to the better classes of Italians, Austrians and Russians coming here in large numbers; but the point is that they *do not come* to any great extent. Measured either by intellectual, social, economic or material standards, the average immigrant of any particular class from these countries is far below the best of his countrymen in that class who remain behind, and probably also below the average. Take the case of Italy, from which country we receive many excellent immigrants. It is generally conceded that the North

Italian is a much more desirable immigrant than the South Italian. He is stronger, more enterprising, has laid aside much more property, and is better educated. The percentage of illiteracy amongst the North Italians is about thirteen as against over fifty amongst the South Italians. Yet we receive nearly six times as many of the latter as we do of the former. The solid peasantry of Italy is not coming here to any extent. As for the immigration of a high order which used to come to us from such countries as Germany and the British Isles, it has fallen to a relatively low figure.

(2) The great bulk of the present immigration settles in five or six of the Eastern States and most of it in the large cities of those States. Out of a total of about 850,000 immigrants in 1903, New York State alone received nearly 240,000. About 10% went West and only 2% South. About 63% of last year's immigration settled in the States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Connecticut and Massachusetts, New York State alone receiving over 300,000. The census of 1900 shows that most of the Poles in Illinois were in Chicago, and that most of those in New York State were in New York City and Buffalo. It also shows that of the Italians in Illinois 72% were in Chicago, and of those in New York State 80% were in the City of New York. It also shows that 70% of the Russian Jews congregate in six States and that of those in New York 93% were in New York City, with similar percentages in the cases of Chicago and Philadelphia. Other Government reports show that Southeastern Europe has furnished three times as many inhabitants as Northwestern Europe to the slums of Baltimore, nineteen times as many to the slums of New York, twenty times as many to the slums of Chicago, and seventy-one times as many to the slums of Philadelphia. In these same slums the illiteracy of Northwestern Europe was 25.5%, that of Southeastern Europe 54.5%, or more than double, while the illiteracy of the native American element in the slums was only 7.4%.

The tendency on the part of so many of the new-comers to locate in the cities is one of the unfortunate and startling features of the present immigration. They resort to them to an extent three times greater than do the native born and by so doing accentuate one of the unhealthy phenomena of modern social life: the abnormal growth of the cities at the expense of the country.

Notwithstanding the well-known demand for agricultural labor, particularly in some of the western and southern States, thousands of foreigners continue to pour into our cities, declining, partly for physical reasons, to go to the undeveloped parts of our country as did so many of the settlers from northern Europe. The fact is that much of to-day's immigration is not responsive to such legitimate demands as may exist for the presence here of further people from abroad.

Our present laws (which are very good so far as they go), do not reach a certain minority of immigrants who are generally undesirable because unintelligent, of low vitality, almost, though not quite, poverty stricken, able to perform only the cheapest kind of manual labor, desirous of locating almost exclusively in the cities, by their competition tending to reduce the standard of living of the American wage worker, and unfitted mentally or morally for good citizenship. It would be quite impossible to state what proportion of present immigration is undesirable, or to describe it accurately, but I believe that at least twenty-five per cent. of the immigrants now necessarily admitted, although they may be able to earn a living, yet are not wanted and are of no benefit to the country, but are, on the contrary, a detriment, because their presence tends to lower our standards of living and civilization, and if they were to remain away, they would not be missed except by the transportation companies. I shall describe this as the *undesirable minority* of immigrants. I wish again to emphasize the word *"minority."* Every intelligent person is aware of the fact that large numbers of immigrants of the right kind are coming here, and no one should wish to discourage them in so doing. But while Europe has a great many desirable people she also has millions of undesirable ones, each nation of Europe has its portion of both, and it is most natural that no obstacles should be placed in the way of the latter leaving their respective countries.

The mere fact that immigrants of the undesirable kind are able to earn a livelihood, does not of itself prove that they are wanted. Their presence may be and often is due to industrial depression abroad. They come here not because we want them (as we do want good farm laborers for the West and South), but because our higher economic level and better conditions attract them. The claim is often made that even these undesirable ele-

ments serve a useful purpose in that they relieve Americans of the necessity of performing certain low grade work and enable them to fill higher places. This sounds well, but as applied to the United States at the present time may be fallacious; for the time has come when such higher places are not always vacant, so that the American laborer may, in effect, be driven out of employment, not driven into higher employment.

If the immediate development of all material resources were the chief end in view, regardless of political or social effects, then the introduction of low-grade people, merely because they are cheap laborers, could perhaps be justified, but in that event we should admit also the Chinese, who are amongst the most efficient in the world. But it is realized that there are considerations of greater importance than the immediate material development of the country, that our national ideals, institutions and character cannot be endangered for mere pecuniary gain, and that our own people must not be driven out of employment by compulsory competition with foreigners of unduly low standards.

The permanent effect on our institutions and on our labor market of this new immigration from Italy, Austria, Russia, Syria and other countries which ten years ago sent us hardly an immigrant, remains yet to be determined. It has been in operation only during the past six or seven years, during which period we have enjoyed great prosperity. Many of these new immigrants are likely not to become assimilated. Furthermore our population has recently grown very fast and will in the future be better able than it has been in the past to supply demands for labor of every kind without assistance from abroad. For many reasons the immigration problem of to-day is radically different from what it was twenty years ago. One thing is certain: this increase in population has insured a full quota of poor and ignorant persons to fill our public institutions and schools, reduce wages and pull down standards of living without inviting too many of the poor and ignorant of a low class of foreigners to swell the crowd.

How further to curtail immigration of the undesirable kind without interfering with the legitimate commercial demands for further immigration of the right kind, is a problem that is puzzling a great many thinking people. The difficulty of its solution is increased by reason of the fact that it is impracticable to

legislate directly or discriminate against any race or locality of Europe as we have done in the case of the Chinese. The least that may be reasonably expected of Congress is that it direct its attention to the following points, and if it were to do so, much of the undesirable element would remain away.

1. We are receiving too many immigrants whose physical condition is poor and who are feeble-minded. The law now specifically excludes idiots, insane persons, epileptics and those suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease. To exclude those suffering from other physical or mental ailments, it is generally necessary first to show that such ailments render them likely to become public charges, and it is not always possible to do this. I think that in all instances in which the surgeons who conduct the medical examination at the Immigrant Stations certify in writing that the physical condition of an immigrant, dependent for support upon his own physical exertions, is below a certain standard to be designated by them by some appropriate term, whether this be "low vitality," "poor physique," or some other similar expression, or that he is "feeble-minded," such immigrant should be forthwith excluded, subject to certain reasonable exceptions in the cases of very close relatives of persons who have resided here a given length of time and are shown to be responsible.

2. A large number of immigrants, probably over 50 per cent., now come here because they are assisted to do so. As a rule that man will be the better immigrant who comes of his own initiative and with his own money. Much has already been written on the evils of assisted immigration. I quote the following from the excellent chapter on this subject in Mayo-Smith's book on immigration:

> "During recent years emigration of paupers and poor people from Europe has been assisted in various ways: — By poor-law authorities; by charitable societies and persons, by remittances and prepaid tickets from relatives and friends in this country; and by steamship agents and brokers who have made it a business to induce people to emigrate. * * * When we take all these together we shall see that a very large percentage of the immigration is stimulated in various ways."

As early as 1891 Congress took cognizance of the fact that assisted immigration was likely to be of an inferior sort, by excluding "Any person whose ticket or passage is paid for by another or who is assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown that such person does not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes." Unfortunately the words were added: "But this section shall not be held to prevent persons living in the United States from sending for a relative or friend who is not of the foregoing excluded classes."

These last quoted words were added as a concession to those who were opposed to the discrimination against assisted immigrants. They have largely resulted in defeating the object sought to be obtained and the law on the subject of assisted immigration is in an unsatisfactory condition. It should in my opinion, be so strengthened as to prohibit absolutely all such immigration, subject only to reasonable exceptions in cases of very close and otherwise eligible relatives, such as fathers, mothers, children, brothers and sisters of aliens who have already resided here a sufficient length of time and are shown to be responsible. This last provision is most important. A family from Eastern Europe presents itself for transportation to the United States. It consists of a father (the only breadwinner), a mother and six small children. After the father has purchased the tickets there will remain thirty dollars. They are bound for New York or some other large city. If they were to arrive together they would probably be excluded. But the father comes first and gains admission. Shortly afterwards the mother and children arrive almost penniless, and claim the right to land on the ground that the husband is already here, though he is earning barely enough to support himself. Cases of this sort are of frequent occurrence and prove very troublesome ones for the immigration authorities to deal with. The improper separation of members of a family for the purpose of facilitating admission and the bringing here of large numbers of women and children dependent for support on some one alleged to be in this country, are matters which should be made the subject of further regulation.

3. Closely connected with the subject of assisted immigration is that of stimulated immigration. In fact if these two artificial causes of immigration could be eliminated, the problem would largely take care of itself. Congress in 1891, sought to

prevent such stimulation by steamship companies by prohibiting them directly or indirectly to encourage immigration except by ordinary commercial letters or oral representation "stating the sailing of their vessels and the terms and facilities for transportation therein." While I am aware that there are some who hold that the activities of steamship agents do not begin until the emigrant has made it known that he intends to migrate, yet there is also much evidence tending to show that in certain portions of Europe persons either acting as agents of steamship companies or, what amounts to virtually the same thing, receiving commissions upon all tickets sold through their efforts, are actively engaged in drumming up emigration. The official reports contain much proof of these practices which result in people coming here who if let alone would not do so, whom we do not want, and who have been deceived as to the ease with which they may prosper in this country. But with the present inadequate penalties attaching to the offense, this law must virtually remain a dead letter. It should be strengthened materially and heavy penalties should be imposed for its violation. Of course such a law can have no effect abroad, but we can reach here the beneficiaries of its violation. I regret that this frequent mention of the word "penalties" is necessary. Experience shows that without them the law is often disregarded. Even in such matters as the carrying of immigrants with loathsome and dangerous contagious diseases many of the steamship companies, to their disgrace be it said, paid slight heed to the law, so long as the only penalty was deportation of the immigrant. With the advent, however, of the law under which a fine of one hundred dollars might be imposed for each case — it could properly be increased to five hundred dollars — they bestirred themselves to detect disease as they had never done before, with the result that numerous would be emigrants are now left in Europe of a class that were formerly brought here only to suffer the hardship of deportation.

4. The right to impose the fine above mentioned of $100 should not be limited to cases of loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, but should be extended at least to cases of idiocy and insanity, and perhaps to some others.

5. Even with the the exercise of the greatest care it cannot be hoped to detect at the time of entry all persons who come in violation of law. The difficulty of the task is increased through

false statements by the immigrant as to his trade or occupation, destination, and the names and condition of his relatives or friends. Congress therefore wisely enacted that in certain specific instances aliens who within stated periods are fund "to have entered the United States in violation of law" or "who shall be found public charges therein from causes existing prior to landing" shall be deported. What is a "cause existing prior to landing?" The present practice is to consider as such only physical disability certified to exist by a reputable surgeon. It should be possible to send out of the country at the steamship company's expense any person who was *in fact* at the time of landing a pauper or a person likely to become a public charge, even though this fact was not detected at the time of landing. It is also worthy of consideration whether the law should not be so amended as to permit deportation within one year of any one who within this time becomes a public charge from whatever cause. The burdens of our charitable institutions are rapidly increasing through the aliens who become objects of charity. New York State alone expends annually several millions in the support of indigent or helpless aliens. The poverty developing amongst many of them after arrival is far greater than is generally supposed. In an annual report of one of the Charity Societies in New York City we read:

"The Hospitals and Orphan Asylums and other Institutions for the relief of the sick, the halt, the blind, the fatherless and the indigent, are not only packed to the utmost, but are obliged to turn away applicants for admission who are worthy and deserving of consideration and of help, merely because of lack of room. * * * Our burdens are being *constantly increased by the thousands who come from Europe every year* to settle in our midst. * * *" And speaking further of the care of their poor in the City of New York, it is said that this is *"essentially the problem of the immigrant."*

The mere fact that some of these poor may be cared for by private charity is irrelevant to the point under discussion.

6. Many agencies are at work abroad to defeat our immigration laws, which we cannot hope to counteract until we establish a competent information service to make continuous investigations in those countries from which we are receiving large numbers of immigrants. It is quite as necessary as is the similar

service of the Treasury Department. It would be of peculiar value in securing evidence concerning assistance given to paupers to enable them to leave their country, the sending of recently discharged inmates of insane asylums and penal institutions, the wholesale "coaching" of immigrants, the soliciting of immigrants through steamship agents or runners, the making of contracts in violation of the contract labor law and many other matters. Such evidence should be forwarded forthwith for use here.

7. The so-called "Passenger Act" regulates the number of persons allowed to be carried and the manner in which they shall be carried and fed. It is good so far as it goes, but it does not go far enough and undue crowding still exists in the steerage of many steamers. On some the appointments are excellent and the immigrants treated and fed well. But on others the quarters are congested and, contrary to the Statute, remain filthy during the voyage while the food is poor and inadequate. Congress should amend the Act in necessary particulars, and, in addition, steps should be taken to secure competent evidence of violations thereof as they occur during the voyage, so that adequate penalties may be inflicted. A mere inspection of the vessel after she has reached port is not likely to disclose such evidence, and yet no other kind of inspection is now practicable. The Passenger Act can be made a very useful aid in the regulation of immigration.

8. The "head tax" should be raised from $2 to at least $3 or such other reasonable sum as would enable the Immigration Service to carry on its important and increasing work unembarrassed by pecuniary considerations and without additional expense to the government.

Lack of space prevents a full discussion of other remedies available to curtail undesirable immigration, the illiteracy test is *per se* not a good one, because a man may be a good immigrant and have the making of a good citizen through he cannot read or write. But if other proposed methods fail to prove an adequate remedy against the undesirable immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe, a situation will be created which will warrant the establishment of this test: for it so happens that large numbers of the immigrants from these regions, undesirable for other reasons, are also illiterate.

The work of inspecting, passing and rejecting immigrants as

performed at Ellis Island and other immigrant stations can never be performed abroad either by our Consuls or any other Government officials. It is true that at Naples, American surgeons are doing excellent work in recommending to the steamship companies the rejection of immigrants with certain diseases, particularly trachoma. This is work which should and could be done by the steamship companies, and which it is quite within our power to compel them to do. But it is one thing for a surgeon to detect a well known disease, and quite another thing for inspectors to apply the indefinite test of "likely to become a public charge." A majority of the exclusions occur because immigrants do not measure up to this test, a fact which under the law must be determined not by a single inspector, but by what is known as a Board of Special Inquiry, from whose decision an appeal lies to Washington. The work of such a board is extremely difficult, and there are many reasons why it could not sit in European ports. But this is not necessary. The steamship companies have their own inspection which is lax or severe, according as our laws are laxly or severely administered on this side, and with additional information placed through an information service in the hands of the American authorities, there would be fewer violations of law in respect of matters with which we are now unable properly to deal. The suggestion that all improper immigrants should be stopped by our Government on the other side sounds well, but as a matter of practice this will never be possible.

I shall be asked: Would not Statutes enacted on some of the lines suggested be difficult of execution? My answer is yes, but no more so than are certain features of existing law, particularly the requirement that every person "likely to become a public charge" be excluded. Here is an indefinite test, to apply which correctly is constantly taxing the judgment and skill of a large corps of able and conscientious officials. Yet this provision will always remain in the law, as it should, and has been adopted by other countries as one of the most available and important tests to be applied to immigrants. The fact is that the execution of any immigration law is, and always will be, a far more serious and intricate task than most people realize. Additional safeguards should not be refused merely because their application is surrounded with difficulty. It will be less difficult for the Marine Hospital surgeons to determine whether or not an immigrant is

afflicted with low vitality or poor physique than it is for the inspectors to say whether or not he is likely to become a public charge. In connection with assisted immigration it is incidentally to be remembered that much of it originates here in the form of so-called "prepaid tickets." As for the offense of stimulating immigration, if this be carried on in portions of Europe as openly as is reported to be the case, then with the aid of a proper information service evidence could readily be secured which would lead to the imposition of fines upon the guilty companies. It must be remembered that most of the companies represent foreign capital and are directed by foreigners residing abroad. It is not to be expected that they will be over-zealous in assisting our Government to execute laws opposed to their commercial interests, at any rate the fact is that at least some of them appear to close their eyes to conditions which our Government has no difficulty in detecting every time it causes an investigation to be made abroad.

Much misapprehension exists as to the contract labor law because it is popularly associated exclusively with the interests of labor organizations. This, however, is not the case. In its essential, though not in all of its minor features, it must be regarded as a wise form of legislation, particularly in so far as it prevents the introduction by powerful interests of cheap manual labor under promise of employment at unduly low wages or to fill temporary needs at the expense of American labor. It is difficult enough, as matters stand, to determine who is and who is not likely to become a public charge. It would be far more difficult to do this if persons could be heard to say that the immigrant must be admitted because they had already hired him, so that he could not become a public charge, though the wages might prove to be inadequate and the employment only temporary. This is not the place to discuss fully the contract labor law. The fact is not generally known that it contains a number of important exemptions. Skilled labor may be imported under contract if labor of like kind unemployed cannot be found here; and it does not apply to artists, members of learned professions, or personal servants. The States and Territories may advertise freely the inducements they may think they offer for immigration. It might profitably be further liberalized so as to permit the importation of certain kinds of farm labor so much needed, (and not

obtainable amongst the present immigrants), in the West and South, such importation to be permitted only under proper safeguards and with the approval previously obtained of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor.

A prejudice exists against the contract labor law because it is supposed to be of assistance to strikers who use violence in preventing others from filling their places. The remedy for this vicious practice is not to permit employers to import more foreigners for temporary service, but to put strikers using such violence in jail, and afford ample protection to those who may wish to take their places.

A word as to the proposed distribution of immigrants throughout the country districts. It is devoutly to be hoped that it will succeed, but there are grave doubts that it will ever be more than partially successful. It is, however, already being exploited by some as a panacea for all immigration evils, although it is still largely in the experimental stage. Several years must elapse before it will be possible to pass judgment upon it, even as a solution of the problem of the congestion in tenements due to immigrants now here. But even if it should succeed as to the latter, yet it will not solve the problem of future immigration, assuming that this will continue to crowd into the cities. There is little use in artificially creating a vacancy in the tenements only to have it filled again twice over upon the arrival of the next steamer from Southern Europe. Let us be frank and sincere and come out in the open in the discussion of these questions. Are we talking about the best interests of the people of the United States, or those of the lower grades of people of Europe and the transportation companies? I plead guilty to the charge that I am looking only to the former and I insist that we should cut off the supply of those we do not want, and not intensify our already difficult social and municipal problems by heralding abroad the fact that we are actually making room for more of them in our slums through the removal of their predecessors.

The most important effects of immigration are the racial effects. They constitute a question not between the citizens and immigrants of to-day, but between the children and grand-children of both. With this question I do not attempt to deal, except to call attention to its grave importance. We owe our present civilization and standing amongst nations chiefly to people of a

type widely different from that of those now coming here in such numbers. The wildest enthusiast on the subject of unrestricted immigration would hardly claim that the United States could be socially, politically or industrially what it is to-day had it been peopled exclusively by the races of Russia, Austria and Southern Italy, and particularly from the poorer elements of such races, which races, furthermore, have failed to place their own countries in the front rank of nations. The probable effect on the future of this country of the millions of future immigrants representing these elements who are sure to come here during the next few years, if permitted to do so, should be made the subject of exhaustive scientific research, which might or might not show that to maintain our institutions and standards of civilization substantially as they are it will be necessary to limit this new immigration in some manner far more radical than any hereinbefore suggested.

The subject of the naturalization frauds perpetrated by some immigrants is not a pleasant one to discuss. Naturalization certificates are issued to-day on such proof and in such different forms as may best suit the various Courts in each State which are authorized to grant them. Not to mention the fraudulent proof presented in many instances, the lack of uniformity in the certificates is so great as to render it difficult for any but an expert to determine whether or not they are genuine. Their issue is surrounded by none of the precautions which are taken in respect of the issue of many papers of far less value. As a result evidences of American citizenship are now sold both here and abroad with more or less impunity at about ten dollars each, and bogus citizens are manufactured at less than it costs to buy a good suit of clothes. Legislation could readily be enacted which would put a stop to these practices. It is not creditable to us as a people or to our representatives in Congress that this has not been done long ago. It is bad enough that we allow persons unfitted mentally or morally for good citizenship to acquire, even by legal means, this privilege, so often spoken of as "priceless." Our cynical indifference to some matters of the highest importance is nowhere better shown than in our complacent acquiescence in the purchase and sale of this privilege at a price which brings it within reach of the poorest foreigner.

It was not the purpose of this paper to discuss the great

benefits we have derived from the good immigration which has come to us in such large measure. They are conceded by all fair minded persons and do not require to be emphasized. Similar benefits can, if we will, be secured for the future, and I know of no better way to accomplish this than by closing our doors to all undesirable classes of the old world, and not merely to the diseased, the insane, the criminals, the paupers, and a few other degraded elements. Charity begins at home. This is particularly true as regards national matters, and however deep our sympathy may be for the oppressed of other countries, it should not stand in the way of our legislating primarily in the interest of our own people.

"HOW SHALL WE MAKE OUR IMMIGRATION LAWS MORE EFFECTIVE?"

BY BROUGHTON BRANDENBURG, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF IMMIGRATION.

The question of immigration is a problem of humanity not of merchandise. Its financial and economic importance is minimized by its tremendous social consequence. Its complexity is baffling. Its changes year by year are distracting. Its immensity palls upon the patriot who confronts it. Only when men of all standards and creeds realize that, if unheeded, it menaces the destiny of the nation, will the whole people rise to the emergency and out of love for their native land settle the question and settle it right!

Let us endeavor to see clearly. We have a land of beauty and fair promise. What man is so much the fool as to deny for one moment that it is the heritage of the native born? Therefore I hold that the native born are ethically free to decide whether or not it is best for the country that *this* man shall be admitted to share its institutions and opportunities and that *other* man compelled to stay out. And again, is there one immigrant who comes to us who is not seeking *his* best interests? Why in dealing with him should we not consider *our* best interests?

Surely there is no lover of his country who would admit to it the European criminal, lunatic, imbecile, assassin, prostitute, pauper, or loathsomely diseased person. These classes I am sure

can be eliminated from consideration at this point. There are but two valid reasons why we should admit *any* immigrants. First, the development of our resources has created a demand for common labor which our people are neither willing nor able to meet entirely from their own ranks. We must import some immigrants to do a share of our labor, just as Germany last year brought in 400,000 Galicians, Bohemians, Styrians and Swiss to harvest the crops. But, when we admit enough immigrants to take away the tasks of our native laborers, leaving two millions in the rural districts of the East eking out a living we are committing a shameful crime against our own flesh and blood.

Secondly, the vast lonely regions of the West and South cry with a mighty voice for people, more people! To fill out the skeleton of our giant national frame we must have the best white stock that we can get from which to breed the greater nation of the future.

It is not vain glory when we say that we have bred more than sixty millions of the finest people the world has ever seen. Today there is to surpass us, none. Therefore any race that we admit to our body social is certain to be more or less inferior. But, if we consider the racial stock from which we are sprung and realize that it was strengthened, purified and vitalized by blending and by the centuries-long combat with nature subduing her wildness to make our civilized habitation, then by accepting reinforcements from the same or as good racial stocks and putting them under equally clarifying circumstances we may hope to produce as excellent a physical and mental type.

Bearing in mind the prime necessity of a good racial material, and the demand for a people of this generation not only able but willing to work, we can go on with our process of selection. We have been constructed almost entirely from Keltic and Teutonic flesh, blood and bone, the material that has built all those nations that are really dominant on the face of the earth at this moment. By all that we have been, are and hope to be let us think well before we accept an immigration which is seventy per cent. Slavic, Semitic and Iberic.

I am not prepared to say the blending of bloods will not be highly satisfactory, but contend that the experiment is yet to be completed and should be gravely considered before the scale of it is increased.

Though the indications are that the tide will fall off before the close of the calendar year, the fiscal year will see more than twelve hundred thousand newcomers landed on our shores. Ellis Island alone will handle more than a million cases. The normal limit of the inspection service there is 5,000 per day. The mill has ground at that rate for weeks. With fourteen lines of inspectors running for a ten hour day, how much time do we find that each inspector has in which to ascertain whether or not the candidate before him is an anarchist, a criminal, a contract laborer, is or has been insane, is likely to become a public charge, is properly destined, or tells the truth in twelve other more or less important things? Note, that the candidate is usually prepared to lie and lie ably and the inspector to hold him for special inquiry has no evidence at hand with which to contradict him while the immigrant may have the corroboration of friends coming with him. *The inspector has 1 minute and 40 seconds in which to pick out his man!* Even then it is trying a prisoner who is a complete stranger to judge, jury and prosecutor on a suspicion that must emanate from the prisoner and with no testimony for the prosecution except what may be dragged from the prisoner and his partisans. In my investigations in Europe I found abundant evidence that all doubtful immigrants were well coached before sailing. Therefore, since our enforcement of the law even in Ellis Island where the system is brought and maintained to the point nearest perfection, is entirely dependent upon the word of the immigrant is not the enforcement palpably a farce? A joke, Commissioner General Sargent has called it. Is not the system itself something to be abandoned as quickly as we can find something that will serve us better?

No matter what our standard of requirements may be the immigrant will evade it if he is permitted to state his own qualifications uncontradicted. The only place to ascertain the truth is where he has lived. After he has reached New York, can he be held till his record is looked up in Europe? Can he be detained at Bremen or Naples while his career in Russia or Greece is investigated? Both are absurd. The important examination must take place in the locality where the evidence exists. Any other plan is folly and a waste of time, nothing more than a costly and dangerous makeshift..

There are several countries that would lend their aid to the

establishment of an inspection service within their borders. There are others that would not. Place a head tax of $50 on every immigrant from any country that will not permit such inspection, and in three months there will be a reversal of that government's policy. The foreign steamship companies will attend to that.

I have no time to elaborate the details of such a plan of foreign inspection, but they have been gone over by some of the ablest men in the country, and while all say they are unusual it is because an unheard of emergency must be met, and if they are bold they are also practical.

At present there are two bills before Congress. The Dillingham bill in the Senate very ably stops the loop holes in the present law of requirements, and raises the head tax from $2 to $5. It arranges for a bureau of information to be established at Ellis Island to cause immigrants to go to the South or West, when ninety-five per cent. of them have had their destinations fixed some time before they left home and can be as little diverted as the delegates of this conference can be induced to go from this hall to Canada and get free land instead of returning to their homes. These people are hanging the web of their future lives on the peg of the prosperity of some brother, father, friend, neighbor or padrone already definitely located in the United States. They are going where he is and nowhere else! Also, how much of that 1 minute and 40 seconds is to be devoted to explaining to the immigrant the glories of Kansas when he has a prepaid ticket to Bridgeport, Connecticut?

The House measure known as the Gardner bill, does not represent the full intentions of the man whose name it bears, Representative Augustus Gardner, of Massachusetts, one of the few men at Washington who really know anything about the immigration question. He at least is fully alive to the weakness of the present system, but in taking charge of the measure, desires to gain what ground he may in the face of mountains of opposition, ignorance and apathy. It has all of the advantages of the Dillingham bill and requires every alien to have $25 on arrival, or for the head of a family to have $50, requires each alien to read his native language, provides for the sending of inspecting surgeons abroad, fines all transportation companies bringing diseased aliens $100 for each case, and makes it a crime to import contract labor, where heretofore it has been merely unlawful, and

$1,000 might be recovered by suit. In the years that the law has been on the statute books there have been but two suits for such recovery. If convictions for crime are no more frequent the volume of contract labor will certainly be very little abated. The deportation limit is placed at three years after landing. Lastly there is an extension of the physical requirements. Immigrants admitted must be of good physique. There are no provisions in any new bill for improving the notoriously vile conditions of the steerage in transit.

It is not within the province of my subject to discuss requirements but how to make the requirements effective. The requirements already on the books are quite stringent, but is there anyone here who believes that they are not grossly evaded? If so, here is a label with a counterfeited United States Consular seal on it which shows how shiploads of unfumigated baggage from the disease laden cities of Europe are brought to our ports. Here is a report from a trusted agent which shows how thousands of contract laborers and diseased aliens are got over the Mexican border. Here is a report from another agent that more than sixty French women of immoral character whom he has questioned have been in the United States less than two years and had passed through Ellis Island in the company of men paid to pose as their husbands. If I had time I might present overwhelming similar testimony, but nothing could be more convincing than the open confession of Mattina, one of the great Italian newspapers that Italy is sending us her criminals, her insane, and her paupers.

So, we have the country's needs as to labor and population in mind, we have seen the general character of our immigration and the particular character of the evasions of the law. Make your requirements what you will; that is easily done. The present partially remedial bills have been outlined. If, as I hope, the fallacies of the SYSTEM under which we are working have been laid bare, there is but one conclusion to be reached. If we are to have any immigration it must be selected immigration and must be selected in the one spot where the proof of every man's quality can be found — among his own people.

ETHNIC FACTORS IN IMMIGRATION — A CRITICAL VIEW.

BY DR. MAURICE FISHBERG, NEW YORK.

Modern civilized nations are formed, developed, and become world-powers regardless of their racial composition. Community of language, literature, traditions and commercial interests are to-day mainly the ties which keep nations together. The sentiment of race has nothing to do with it. People of two nationalities, living at the two sides of an artificial or arbitrary border, love their own country intensely, and with the same intensity may hate their neighbors across the border, notwithstanding the fact that both are of the same race stock. Any one who has traveled extensively over the continent of Europe can give several examples which illustrate this point. On the other hand, in large modern commercial and industrial cities we find a conglomeration of various ethnic elements living together and the inhabitants are proud of the greatness of their city. All racial prejudices are obliterated by the homogeneity of the environment, and community of interest. The United States is the best example of the negative value of race in the formation of a great nation. Notnotwithstanding the fact that most of the races of the habitable globe have contributed their share to the formation of our population, the greatness of the nation and its commercial and intellectual achievements have been unparalleled in history.

The notion that the people of the United States were at any time-period of their history, colonial, revolutionary, or modern, composed of a homogeneous race stock, is not based on fact. It is erroneous to believe that only within the last twenty-five years has the pure Anglo-Saxon blood been suffering dilution, or pollution as some Chauvinists want us to believe, through the invasion of other races inferior to the original stock. Any one who sees none but English people among the Colonists forgets some important facts of history. "If we have regard not to New England and Virginia alone," says Prof. Giddings, "but to the entire area of the United States, there has never been a time since the constitution was adopted when our population has not been composite. In the colonial period the Dutch had settled in New Amsterdam, the Swedes had come to New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Dela-

ware, the French Huguenots to the Carolinas, the Germans to Pennsylvania, and the Scotch-Irish to Pennsylvania and the valleys leading southward through Virginia to Carolina and Georgia. In the Northwest Territory there were many descendants of the French colonists. Others were added to the American people by the Louisiana purchase, while the acquisition of Florida, Texas, New Mexico and California brought in a Spanish element, most of which, however, presently disappeared into Mexico and Cuba."

ALLEGED PHYSICAL DETERIORATION OF THE POPULATION.

Many writers on the racial effects of the recent immigration have alleged that "inferior" racial elements are likely to deteriorate physically the people of the United States. In the first place, it is stated that the average stature of the population will become lower. None of these writers have to my knowledge made an effort to study the problem directly from the strictly scientific standpoint, so that their statements on the subject can be considered merely opinions not necessarily based on facts. But during the Civil War there were collected excellent statistics about the stature of the population of the United States, both native and and foreign born, and published in the Memoirs of the United States Sanitary Commission.* In the evidence presented in this work it is decisively shown that as regards stature and muscular development the immigrants were a picked lot of men. On the average they were superior to the people in the countries from which they came. This phenomenon is known under the technical term of "Social Selection," or "Selection by Immigration," and is the result of the fact that it is the stronger, the more energetic and adventurous on the average, who ventures to leave his home and travel thousands of miles in search of bettering his condition, believing that here he will find more favorable conditions and opportunities. The average weakling, diseased and defective, lacks the courage and perseverance to undertake a long journey. There is good reason to believe that this is also the case with the most recent immigrants. I have myself investigated the problem among the Jewish immigrants in New York City, and found that they were taller than the average of the Jewish population in eastern Europe. Investigations among the Italians

* "Investigations in the Military and Anthropological Statistics of American Soldiers, by B. A. Gould, New York, 1869.

in America will undoubtedly show that this is also true of the immigrants of this nationality.

The claim that these races, who are shorter of stature than the average American, may reduce the height of the population of this country by intermarriage with the natives is also not to be considered seriously. Anthropologists have found that the average height of children born to persons of different races, one shorter, the other taller, is superior to that of the parents. Prof. Franz Boas, of Columbia University, has shown this to be a fact among Indian half-breeds in the United States. It is consequently absurd to speak of physical deterioration of the American people owing to the arrival of immigrants short of stature. Moreover, superior stature does not necessarily go hand-in-hand with superior mental and physical vigor. The Japanese are the best examples of a people, short of stature, who are superior physically and intellectually to many taller races, while the tall and muscular Patagonians are in the lowest stage of social evolution.

According to some writers, we are also threatened with other "racial effects," namely: by intermixture with the eastern and southern Europeans, the Americans will become dark complexioned, with brown or black hair and eyes. The skull also will change; it will become, according to an author whose wisdom has repeatedly been quoted, "more of the Brachio-cephalic (sic) type." The uninitiated, reading that the average American head is likely to be transformed and become "Brachio-cephalic," is surely terrified, believing that only a very malignant affection can have such a big name. But after telling you that the Brachycephalic head is more or less round in contour, in contradistinction to the Dolichocephalic type, which is oval, one can see that there is nothing to be afraid of. Moreover, the shape of the skull has absolutely nothing to do with the intellectual capacities of the individual (in fact, it has been argued that the brachycephalic type is the one representing superior evolution), and negroes rarely have brachycephalic skulls. This little information may appease the native fears of some who like to use technical terms, and big words, without having any idea as to their significance.

BIRTH RATES OF IMMIGRANTS AND THE "RACE-SUICIDE" OF NATIVES

"The most important of all effects of immigration," we are told, "is that of preventing additions to the population from our

own stock." It was General Walker who first enunciated the theory that immigration does not reinforce our population. It only replaces the native by the foreign elements. If the foreigners had not come, the native elements would long have filled the places the foreigners have usurped. General Walker explains "race suicide" as due to the unwillingness of the average American to bring forth children who will be compelled to compete with inferior races.

Two facts are brought in support of this theory: First, the birth rate of the American population has decreased to an appalling degree. Second, immigration has increased enormously during the recent two decades. General Walker finds a causal relation between the first and second social facts. Most writers on the subject quote him approvingly, without taking the trouble to investigate whether these two phenomena are not mere coincidences. At the risk of taxing your patience, I will quote a few figures from Bulletin No. 22 of the Twelfth Census of the United States. From the figures presented in this Bulletin we find that the decrease of the birth-rate of the Americans is not a recent phenomenon, but that it has been going on almost uninterruptedly for nearly one hundred years. A decline in the proportion of children began as early as the decade 1810 to 1820, and continued almost uninterruptedly, but by very different amounts until 1900. The average decrease has been about one per cent. in a decade. We thus see that the decline in the procreating capacity of the American population is not at all coincident with the arrival of the degraded races from southern and eastern Europe, it manifested itself at a time when the volume of immigration was comparatively small. The immigrants at that time, moreover, were people, said to be "akin in race, speech, traditions, literature, ideals, etc.," to the original colonists. Why have the Americans at that time "shrunk from raising large families?" To be sure they were not afraid that their issue will be compelled to compete with "inferior" races. As a matter of fact, in Australia the birth rate has also fallen to an alarming degree. The population of New South Wales consists almost exclusively of Anglo-Saxons, only 2.41 per cent. are not English (excepting Maoris) so the menace of inferior race stock need not alarm the average inhabitant. But during the last census in New Zealand it was found that the birth rate has decreased to an appalling degree, almost reaching the

vanishing point. During 1880 the rate was 40.78 per 1,000 population, and in 1901 only 26.34; lower than any other Australian colony (where immigration has been heavier) and lower than any European country excepting France and Ireland. The only increase noted was in illegitimate births. Dr. Barclay, who discusses these figures* shows that the population is actually threatened with extinction. Here we have people akin in race, speech, tradition, etc., to the Americans and who are not compelled to compete with inferior races, and have every reason to raise large families. But they refuse to do so, not because of fear of competition (the average Englishman is not a Chauvinist) but simply because the modern man can not afford to properly educate more than a couple of children. To raise them as laborers they are also unwilling for obvious reasons.

From New Zealand, we can learn an object lesson as to what would have been the increase of the American population had there not been any immigration. The stagnation and even the retrogression of the numerical value of the population would have been appalling.

By way of illustration that the decline in the birth rate of the Americans is not due to fear of the parents lest their offspring will be compelled to compete with inferior races, let me mention also the negroes in the United States. The decrease of the size of the family has been noted to be more strong among the colored population than among the whites. Are the negroes also afraid of competition with inferior races?

THREATENED CHANGES IN THE NATIONAL TYPE AS A RESULT OF THE INFLUX OF INFERIOR RACES.

Recent immigration, we are told, threatens the national type, the very essence of the nation, the government, the state, the society, industry, social and political ideals of the country. "It needs little study (?) to see what great value to any body of men, women and children a national racial type is," says one prolific writer on the subject. Now what is the "national racial type" of the United States? Would any one venture to define it? Of course, the average enemy of the people of the United States

*"Birth and Death rate in New Zealand," Journal of Hygiene, Vol. 2, Oct., 1903, pp. 468-485.

would say that it is the greedy, rich plutocrat, the money king and trust magnate; the New England Puritan is convinced that it is he who represents the noblest type of Americanism, and the Pennsylvania Quaker is ready to credit himself with this virtue. The ostentatious *bon vivant* of New York and Newport society, about whom the press writes so much, is considered by some to represent the real national type. Others will claim that it is the calm, judicious, persevering business man who is the incarnation of real Americanism, while the ward politician, whose entire existence is devoted to the task of reminding the people of their civic duties to the city, state and nation, may justly claim that it is he who promotes more Americanism than anybody else. Or talking geographically, is it the eastern population, or the southern, or perhaps the western who represent the national type? Each has its own characteristics, its own virtues, its own shortcomings. Who to-day, denies that individuals and groups of individuals, are greatly influenced by the physical and social environment? The differences between the eastern, southern and western population of the United States, notwithstanding the fact that they are alleged to have been derived from the same race-stock, is proof that it is not race which exclusively determines the so-called national type, which is after all only a chimera, a fiction. Strictly speaking, there is no "National Type" of a people in any civilized country. Only savages, in the lowest stage of human evolution present a uniform social type. In modern states we find more differences in type between the inhabitants of a great city, when compared with the rural population, than between say the Bostonian and Londoner. Types, even if defined, which is a very difficult task, are created and maintained by the physical and social environment. A change in the surrounding conditions will, in one generation, alter the so-called type beyond recognition. The descendants of the immigrant population of the United States, are the best example as to the effects of the environment on the individual. Says Henry Thomas Buckle: "I cordially subscribe to the remark of one of the greatest thinkers of our time, who says of the supposed differences of race, 'Of all the vulgar modes of escaping from the consideration of the effect of social and moral influences on the human mind, the most vulgar is that of attributing the diversities of conduct and character to inherent and natural differences.' Ordinary writers are constantly falling into

the error of assuming the existence of this difference, which may or may not exist, but which most assuredly has never been proved."*

It is sheer folly to attribute the greatness of any country to the superiority of the dominant race. The same people, placed in a country devoid of such stupendous resources as are found in the United States, could surely not have been able to build up such a great nation.

Can we select our immigrants according to their racial affinities? Attempts have been made in this direction, by writers on the subject but, as might be expected, without any success. "To judge truly of the character of an individual, living or dead, is one of the most difficult tasks a man can attempt," says W. D. Babington in his book on the Fallacies of Race Theories. "But those who might be expected to feel and admit that difficulty, seem to have no such hesitation in pronouncing very definite decisions on the mental or moral qualities of nations, either of the present or past times."†

* Henry Th. Buckle, "History of Civilization in England," Chapter II.

† In a recent work on immigration the author goes so far that he forgets altogether that it is very difficult to define the character of any group of individuals, that he lays down in a decisive manner the characteristics which stigmatize various "races" in Europe and Asia. Thus he arrives to the conclusion whether a race is "desirable" or "undesirable." The first "race" he discusses is the Armenian. Their characteristics are, in part, "A considerable part are shoemakers, tailors, bakers and weavers . . . they showed about $23.00 per capita; 21.9 per cent were illiterate . . . . some are fairly intelligent and are not undesirable, but . . . many of the lower class are extremely objectionable. . . . On the whole they are not desirable immigrants." About the British Canadian "race" the same ethnologist has this to say: "in many respects similar to the native American, but they have fewer defectives and fewer criminals in serious crimes." The English "race" is stated "the better (?) is well educated, brings considerable money and makes a valuable addition to our population, but . . . there is much immigration of the lowest class including numerous defectives and delinquents who find it to their advantage to leave their native land." The English are also said to be "the least readily assimilated" and the English workman "has not as high a standard of sobriety and economy as the American." The German "race" is thrifty and industrious. But they tend to congregate in certain sections. . . . Their chief danger in this country is from the money making spirit." . . . In one breath we are told that "they have a strong love of their native country and keep alive their native language and habits," and that they "readily assimilate."

Some even suggest that in the United States we have a good opportunity to establish a stupendous ethnic laboratory, where we can breed humanity of superior quality. This can be accomplished in a very simple manner, by selecting immigrants of the best races, and giving them a chance to perpetuate their kind. But how should we select the best races? Who can tell us which are the "superior races?" Should we study their habits, customs, literature, history? If so, we will find nothing but favorable opinions about each race and nation. The English literature, history and traditions are as favorable to the Anglo-Saxons, as the literature, history and traditions of the Irish are unfavorable to the "Brutal Saxon," as he is usually named by the so-called "Celt." Whose opinion should we take about the average Englishman, that of the Britisher or that of the Irishman? Or about the Irishman, who is proud of his alleged Celtic origin, or the Englishman, who condemns him for just this reason? Matthew Arnold, speaking about the Irish, says: "I remember when I was young I was taught to think of the Celt as separated by an impassable gulf from the Teuton; my father in particular was never weary in contrasting them; he insisted much oftener on the separation between us and any other race in the world; in the same way Lord Lyndhurst, in words long famous called the Irish 'aliens in speech, in religion, in blood.' This naturally created a profound sense of estrangement, it doubled the estrangement which political and religious differences already made between us and and the Irish, it seemed to make this estrangement immense, incurable, fatal." Even the Jews, Arnold goes on to say, appeared "a thousand degrees nearer than the Celt to us."

One more example will not be amiss: The Germans are exalted by the fact that they are Teutons, a "superior race," which by the way is not true of the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Empire.* They attribute all their greatness, all their glory to the Teutonic element in the population. The French, according to many German savants are of inferior race stock, Gauls, or Celts. But some French ethnologists (particularly de Quatrefages) claim that the Prussians, the dominant people of the German Empire, are not Teutons at all, but were directly descended

* More than one-half of the population of Germany is not Teutonic, and in the southern provinces hardly twenty-five per cent are of this stock. In some parts most of the inhabitants are pure Slavonians.

from the Finns, and are to be classed with the Lapps. They are thus aliens in Europe, barbarians, strangers to modern civilization.

The race problem is practically taking the place occupied formerly, before liberty of conscience was considered an unalienable right of the individual, by the religious question. We have known little of it in the United States, even the English prejudice against the Celt could not find root here. To-day some quasi-sociologists, are taking up the question of inferior races among immigrants, but to the credit of American scholarship it must be stated that not a single ethnologist shares the views of these race theorists.

Scientists know of no pure races in modern civilized countries. The general classification of the European population into three races, the Teutonic, the Alpine and the Mediterranean, holds good in so far as to show that there are three physical types of population on that continent. But it does not by any means indicate that each of these three races is exclusively found in a certain part of Europe, or that one is superior physically or intellectually to the others. Professor Wm. Z. Ripley, of Harvard, has given us the best book on the subject. A thorough perusal of this book, particularly the chapters dealing with "Environment and Race" will convince even the skeptic that while the physical type of the population is greatly dependent on heredity, the intellectual and moral qualities are mostly dependent on the environment. What I want to bring home to you now, however, is that the world over, pure ethnic types are found only in places where the environment is unattractive and unprofitable to man. The Esquimo, living as he does in cold Greenland and Labrador, on a soil blessed with but few resources, need not fear immigration and usurpation. The same can be said about the inhabitants of central Africa. With the United States the case is different: "In attracting men of many nationalities" says Professor Giddings, "our country has exemplified another great law of the action of the environment upon a people; in this case we might say in creating a people. A region of few resources or opportunities usually has a homogeneous population, and particularly is this true if the region is isolated. Its population is increased only by a birth rate in excess of the death rate. But to regions which offer opportunities of various kinds, men of all tongues come, to commingle there in a free struggle for existence. Regions of agricultural fertility,

again, are more likely to have a homogeneous population than are those which offer mineral wealth, manufacturing opportunities, or, above all, opportunities for commerce."*

A glance at the distribution of the three principal races in Europe will convince every one that exceptional purity of race is not all conducive to high social evolution. The Teutonic race, the crown of creation according to some dilettantes, has achieved its highest degree of evolution in countries where it commingled with other races. In Germany and England, where the population has a large quantity of Teutonic blood, more or less diluted with Celtic and Mediterranean blood, we find the highest degree of intellectual, commercial and industrial development. In Scandinavia, particularly in Sweden, where the Teutonic element has remained in a much purer state, commerce and industry are much lower than in Germany and England. In the United States, where the Teutonic element has been intermingling with nearly all the races of the habitable globe, we find an unprecedented industrial and commercial development, and the prediction of many that the time is not far when the American will lead also in the sciences and arts, is well on the way of being realized.

All sociologists agree that the main cause of the unprecedented progress of the United States within the short period of one century is the fact that we have attracted the young men of energy, determination and perseverance from all countries, from all nations and races. To all those who were dissatisfied with their social, political or economic conditions in their native homes, and who desired to improve their condition, the United States offered a home, offered splendid opportunities which they could not find in Europe. People who can resist religious persecution and political oppression are good raw material for a free country. A progressive country can not grow from within its own loins, as has been pointed out by Ripley (Races of Europe, p. 528). It is only in the isolated agricultural districts that the population has no opportunity to intermingle with outsiders, and remains as a result conservative, and contributes but little to the progress of the nation.

It is consequently not the ethnic affinities of the immigrant which is of significance. On the contrary, racial intermixture is of great importance to progressive social development. The pro-

* F. Giddings, "The American People," International Quarterly, 1903.

cess of selection is natural in immigrants. To begin with it is only the one who is dissatisfied with conditions at home who emigrates. If he were satisfied with the political, social and economic conditions in his native land, he would surely remain there. The immigrants are as a result recruited from the sturdiest, most venturesome and energetic individuals in Europe. This picked class of men is again sieved through by the officials of the steamship companies at the ports of embarkation (not because they are anxious to bring the best class of men, but for fear of being compelled to take them back again to Europe, and in case of contagious eye diseases, to pay in addition a fine of $100.00). Arriving at our ports another sieve is encountered, which permits only "desirables" to pass, and detains all diseased, defectives and degraded for deportation. Few know that this process of selection of the fathers and mothers of the future American citizens does not end at Ellis Island. Any one who watches a transatlantic steamer leaving an American port bound for Europe will be struck by the number and general appearance of the steerage passengers. They are mostly the unfit, who in some manner escaped elimination by our vigilant immigration officials, and also those who, for any reason, could not adapt themselves to the American physical, social or political environment. Thus another class of what some will call "undesirables" is eliminated by a natural process. Annually hundreds of thousands of immigrants who failed here return to their native lands. I have had excellent opportunities to examine medically several hundred of immigrants who claimed that they could not adapt themselves to American conditions, and begged a charitable society for assistance to reach their native home. The final result of this process of selection at our ports and within the country, is that as a rule only those who are the best fitted to the American environment remain here and perpetuate their kind.

RACE EFFECTS OF IMMIGRATION.*

BY PROFESSOR L. C. MARSHALL, DELAWARE, OHIO.

Speaking in broad general terms — and the narrow limits of time will permit nothing more — this country has experienced the inflow of three great sections of the human races — European, African and Asiatic. In the one we have a case of voluntary im-

* See Appendix F, p. 625 for plates illustrating this paper.

migration, and in the second a case of forced immigration, and in the third a case of exclusion.

As the result of the forced immigration we have in the negro an element containing 11.6 per cent. of our total population, or more than one in ten, that for some reason or group of reasons — whether historical accident or inferior ability or the ban of race prejudice — has failed to be assimilated and now forms a most serious problem in a democracy. We are far from the day when arguments of either industrial development or mistaken self-sacrifice would tempt us to repeat this particular experience.

In the case of the excluded element, the Chinese, we have a race with many estimable qualities, a race furnishing excellent material for self-sacrificing effort upon our part, a race anxious to aid our industrial development by coming in what would have been perhaps the largest tides of immigration we have ever experienced. Nevertheless they are a people that for racial, social, political, and economic reasons we have decided to exclude.

Between these two extremes,— a race forced to immigrate and one forbidden to immigrate, stand, or rather come, the European races. Our prime concern is with them. With no other defense for my classification than that it serves well for discussion purposes and cannot be charged with inaccuracy or misrepresentation,— when its difficulties have been frankly acknowledged,— and with the further defense that this classification is coming to be accepted by many of the best scholars, I shall speak of three races of Europe, the Baltic, the Alpine, and the Mediterranean.

The Baltic race occupies the British Isles, Scandinavia, the southern and eastern shores of the Baltic in Russia, the northern half of the German Empire, northeastern Holland, northern Belgium and northeastern France. In short, as the name indicates, this race is concentrated around the Baltic sea and includes the peoples of northwestern Europe.

The Alpine race dwells in Switzerland, northern Italy, central France, southern Germany and the greater part of Russia and of the Balkan Peninsula. In short, it occupies the great highland region of central Europe.

The Mediterranean race has as its habitat Spain, Portugal, the islands of the Mediterranean west of Italy, a strip of the southern shore of France, and southern Italy. In a badly mixed

state it is to be found in Greece, and, mixed with Arab and Negroid strains, it is to be found in Africa north of the Sahara and west of Tunis. In brief, this race is concentrated in the subtropical region around the Mediterranean.

It is evident that in dealing with the effects of the immigration of these races we shall have to consider three matters:

1. The composition and quality of the population of this country before the great tides of immigration began.

2. The volume and character of the immigration.

3. The results, both present and future, of the interplay of these forces.

Taking up these matters in turn, what was the character of our population in 1790, the date of the first census? As we look back over our colonizing agencies, we might at first glance think of this population as being very heterogeneous. In New England there were the Puritans; in Virginia, the Cavaliers; in Maryland, the Catholics; in New York, a strong Dutch element, stronger than is generally supposed; in Pennsylvania and Delaware, one-third of the population German or German descent; along the Delaware river, the descendants of the Swedes; in the Carolinas, many villages of Highlanders and Huguenots,— apparently a population varied in race, nationality, religion, tastes and speech. And yet, a careful view of the evidence will cause a reconsideration of that opinion.

After all, this 1790 population was mainly of English descent. The foreign element was a considerable portion in only a few of the colonies, while in New England, then comprising in itself about one-third of the total 1790 population, there was perhaps the purest representation of the English people in the world. But whether of English descent or no, this 1790 population was emphatically of Baltic origin. It may almost be said to be exclusively Baltic, for the other elements are negligible, so much so that it is difficult to enumerate any non-Baltic elements of the whole population. Further, this population was, in the main, of most excellent stock. It is true that many of the early-comers were mere adventurers and in some of the southern colonies worse than adventurers; it is true that in some of the colonies there were convicts and indentured servants. Nevertheless the fact of the excellent stock remains. The influence of the undesirables and adventurers was never dominant and diminished as time

went on; the convicts were often merely political offenders — men who had reserved the right to think for themselves and so were the very best of colonists; an important section of the indentured servant class was composed of thrifty, ambitious, progressive people who served out an indenture in order to better their condition, and these were excellent colonists. The rest of the population was well sifted indeed. It was composed of men who had left their European homes because their religious, social, political or economic ideals were too large for their surroundings, men who were sufficiently sturdy in mind and body to overcome the perils and hardships of voyage and settlement. The evidence is clear that in mental capacity, physical qualities and moral stamina these settlers were among the best of their race and that the 1790 population was, in the main, of excellent stock.

Finally, the conditions of life were such that this population was not merely assimilated, but fused. The frontier life with its dangers, hardships and informal society; with its cultivation of the capacity for self-government and of the spirit of self-reliance; with its necessity for the breaking away from old world traditions and performing tasks under American conditions, took but a generation to weld the population into one people and even in the more settled regions the same forces served as a strong fusing agent.

Such was the 1790 population. Mainly English, certainly Baltic, of excellent stock, rapidly becoming fused and amalgamated, for one-half century these people reproduced their kind and developed a national life and character. They increased with great rapidity — an average rate of over 34 per cent. decade by decade — until the population that had numbered but 3,900,000 in 1790 was over 17,000,000 in 1840. In this entire period the immigration they received was of the same Baltic type and was insignificant in amount, for the total immigration from 1776 to 1820 did not exceed 250,000 and the great immigration did not begin until 1845.

This, then, is the people upon whom immigration is to work its racial effects. Our next task is to estimate the volume and character of the immigration. As we look at Chart 1* it is evident that our immigration has come in waves, each larger than

* See Appendix G, p. 627.

its predecessor, and since so much of the total inflow since 1820 is recent, the more far-reaching effects are to be realized in the future. It is further evident that a great change has taken place in the character and conditions of immigration. This question of changed character opens a bitter controversy. Upon the one side are those who point out that in the early immigration there were many unsatisfactory elements. Upon the other side are those who contend that to-day we are not only receiving inferior races, — we are getting the inferior classes of these races, and they refer to the immigrants of to-day as the beaten men of beaten races. Let us, if possible, steer clear of this controversy. Both sides will, of course, agree that there has been a change in the racial origin of our immigration. The statistics, as illustrated in Chart 2* establish this conclusively whatever opinion we may hold as to the characteristics of these races. Both sides will, probably, further agree that the earlier immigrants were subjected to a sifting process that does not apply to those of to-day. The nature of the causes of the early immigration and the hard conditions of voyage and settlement produced that sifting and sorting of the earlier period which, according to Prof. Ripley, resulted in our securing immigrants physically above the average of the peoples from whom they came and which must have similar effects upon mental and moral qualities.

Both sides will probably further agree that a change has occurred in the conditions in this country. For, while we still have many forces making for assimilation and while some of these forces are stronger than ever, nevertheless the immigrant of to-day comes to a land where there is a labor problem, where the free public lands which permitted the dispersion of his predecessors and were the escape valve of the nation, are no longer available, where such development has taken place that we are now turning back upon ourselves, where the social organism has become so large that the formation of inner classes is readily possible, and where such concentration of nationalities has already taken place that many assimilative forces have been seriously impeded. In this connection it should be noted that the changes which have taken place in this country are of such a kind and character that they will be more and not less pronounced in the years to come.

* See Appendix G, p. 628.

In our discussion thus far we have seen the character of the population upon which immigration was to work its effects and we have seen the volume and the changed conditions of that immigration. We come now to our third problem, the outcome, the race effects. Let us again avoid controversial matters as far as may be. Clearly there are but two great elements to be considered. One of these is heredity; that is, the permanent race traits and characteristics of those who form and are to form our population. The other is environment, both social and physical.

Now since the changed character of immigration has been a thing comparatively recent let us hinge our further discussion upon this fact of changed character and inquire: 1st. What were the effects of the earlier immigration? 2d. What are to be the effects of the present and future immigration?

As to the racial effects of the earlier immigration time will only permit a couple of propositions that I am content to let stand or fall according to their own inherent reasonableness.

The first of these propositions is that the early immigrant did not produce any very serious racial change. (1) His environment was such as to render him entirely American. The qualities possessed both by him and by his new home rendered assimilation easy and rapid. (2) His racial traits were practically identical with the racial traits of those whom he found here. As may be seen in Chart 2* he was Baltic (undoubtedly there were some bad elements in this early tide, however) and he was but added to a Baltic population. (3) His method of selection was, upon the whole, most excellent. We have already seen that, by the very force of circumstances, those early immigrants were physically, mentally and morally the pick of the nations from which they came. True it is that at certain times undesirable classes came, but perhaps this may not have been so much an argument against the entire body as an argument for some sane restriction or regulation of immigration even at this early period.

The second proposition is that while the earlier immigration did not, in the elements it contributed, produce serious racial change, it is at least an open question as to whether it did not check the increase of the population of colonial descent. That there has been a great decline in the birth rate of the original (colonial) stock there can be no possible doubt. Had no decline

* See Appendix G, p. 628.

taken place, our population from native stock alone would to-day amount to some 100,000,000 and the element of "colonial descent" would to-day be three times as large as the element of "immigrant descent," according to some authorities. The real condition, however, is shown in Chart 3.*

But was this decline due to immigration? In answering this question, it should be frankly recognized upon the one hand that if immigration did so operate, it was doubtless but one of several forces acting in the same direction, though possibly a very important one. It should be as frankly recognized, upon the other hand, that it is never possible to establish with mathematical exactness a relation of cause and effect in elusive social phenomena. All that can be done is to present the usual evidence and each must be convinced or not convinced acording to his estimate of the value of the evidence.

1. Part of this evidence is the evidence of authority, that is, the statements of many families and many earnest students, in short, those in a position to know, as to what has taken place. There may be said to be a very considerable agreement upon this matter.

2. But aside from the evidence of authority, it is urged that what little we understand of the laws of population and its increase renders it quite probable that a causal connection should exist between immigration and the checking of native increase. It is argued that the presence of the immigrant and his competition should be expected to give a sentimental and an economic cause for a check to the increase of population,— a generalization that would apply with particular force to our original Baltic stock which had great race pride and a strong desire to give its children every advantage.

3. It is further pointed out that the decline of the native stock began and kept pace with the flow of immigration. This may, of course, have been a coincidence, but the facts are beyond dispute that in the period from 1790-1830, a period of practically no immigration, our population increased decade by decade at an average rate of 34.5 per cent., while in the period from 1830-1860, a period of great immigration, the native stock retarded its increase so that the average rate of increase of the whole population was only 34.7 per cent.

* See Appendix G, p. 629.

4. Again, it is urged that, as far as can be determined, this decline in the native stock took place mainly in those regions in which the immigrants concentrated. This, also, may have been a coincidence, but it does seem possible to trace a connection between large families of native stock and districts not invaded by immigration. It seems to be true of whole sections such as the south, of single states such as West Virginia, and even of small districts within states.

5. Another argument that is advanced is that in the period 1830-1860, the time when the checking of the native stock began, other causes for this checking are hard to establish. It is pointed out that this was a period more favorable to life and reproduction than was the period before 1830. The pressure of city life was not yet heavily felt, for even in 1850 the urban population was but 12.5 per cent. of the total; the average density of population was only 7.9 per square mile; there were great areas of public lands open, and, further, great progress had been made in medicine, food and clothing. And yet it is in this period that the native stock begins to limit its increase.

6. A final bit of evidence rests upon the recent investigations of population in the coal fields. These investigations seem to indicate that even as the earlier immigrant checked the increase of native stock, so the immigrant of to-day is checking the increase of the earlier immigrant stock. If this be true, its importance can scarcely be over-estimated for it would indicate that immigration not only has been, but will continue to be a process of replacement rather than of addition. It puts us face to face with a vital question as to the future composition of our people.

By way of final statement as to the effect of our early immigration it seems pretty clear that, while undoubtedly it contained elements not ideal, it did not produce racial change because, Baltic itself, it was added to a Baltic population in such a way and under such conditions that it was readily assimilated. It is not so certain, however, but that it did cause a decline of the native birth rate and so served to replace our native population, and whether this was desirable or no each must decide for himself.

We come now to the effects, present and future, of the Alpine and Mediterranean immigration of to-day. Time will

permit only a series of short propositions concerning this recent immigration.

1. As far as can be predicted to-day, the change in the character of immigration is to become more marked and its volume is to increase. The origin of our immigration is swinging more and more to the east and, judging from the data now at hand, such as the trend of statistics, the lines of steamship development, the tapping of new centers of population in Asia by railroad lines, the attitude of the immigrants, and investigations such as those of Mr. Brandenburg,— judging from this and other data, *unless conditions change or restriction takes place,* it is not merely present immigration but that of ten or fifteen years hence that should command our attention. Under present laws and regulations this immigration will doubtless continue to flow as long as there is any difference of level in the status of Europe and America. Mr. Bryce called this "drainage," and Prof. Walker referred to it as "pipe line immigration." We need not commit ourselves to these rather offensive terms, but we cannot close our eyes to the fact that the essential features of the proposition are fairly defensible. In as much as there is great doubt whether emigration from Europe has in the least diminished the pressure of population or has greatly raised the standard of living there, the possible proportions of the problem are fairly clearly indicated.

2. Assuming these conditions of changed character and increased volume there will undoubtedly be considerable racial change. Indeed, competent authorities assert that a change is already noticeable in regions in which our newer immigrants have concentrated. If this be true to-day there can be little doubt but that the future has in store considerable changes if the tide of immigration flows unchecked. And this will be especially the case if it be true that immigration so effects the principal of population that our present stock is *replaced* rather than supplemented by the new arrivals.

3. The third proposition must be put in the form of a question. Will this change be a good or a bad one? Here, of course, is the crux of the whole matter. In order to avoid a controversy that could not possibly be satisfactorily treated in the time at my disposal, I am sure I shall be pardoned if I merely indicate some of the questions to be answered if one is to arrive

at a sane judgment on this matter. Discussion of these questions may the more readily be omitted since practically everyone has already reached some conclusion as to most of them.

But before proposing this series of questions it should be noted that it is not safe to try to reach any conclusion by that over-worked argument as to the mixture of races. The trouble with the argument is that it proves nothing either way. It proves nothing historically, contrary to public opinion, for while some mixed races have been successful, others have been most wretched failures. Further, anthropology and ethnology frankly admit they can predicate nothing from mixture of races, nothing optimistic, nothing pessimistic. It is simply an argument of little or no scientific value.

We must abandon the popular mixture of races argument and turn to the fundamental elements of the problem; upon the one hand environment, both social and physical, upon the other hand race characteristics. Since the physical environment is a matter which we can control but little and one that operates upon all, we may omit it in this discussion and then the questions to be answered are fairly obvious. Are the permanent racial characteristics,— those they will retain after they have changed nationality, religion, tongue, and customs, — are these permanent racial characteristics of the new-comers such as will be satisfactory to a democracy? Are they by racial disposition fitted or unfitted for the exercise of political rights? Undoubtedly, they, like all other peoples, have some bad qualities. Will these qualities change with a change of environment, or are they inbred and permanent? Suppose, for the sake of the argument, that immigration means replacement, are we willing to turn over to elements other than Baltic the control of the future of the nation? Would it be a good, a bad, or an indifferent thing if in the future the race composition of this nation should be such that the Baltic element would, compared with the other elements, hold some such position as the descendants of colonial stock hold in Chart 3?* In a word, are the permanent race traits of the new-comers equal in quality to those of the present stock? We must remember that, as Prof. Commons says, "race and heredity form the

* See Appendix G, p. 629.

raw material, education and environment form the tools to fashion social institutions."

And as to environment. Here a series of questions arises and to discuss any one of them in even a cursory manner would require a whole paper in itself. It deals with the effect of the present immigrant upon a list of matters ranging through disease, illiteracy, pauperism, crime, tendency to form classes, standard of living, and a host of others, not the least important of which is the fact that since the so-called lower classes are the classes with large families, from the racial point of view it is highly worth considering who are to compose the lower classes. Then, too, we should not forget that the future aspects of this problem are the important ones. Suppose, for the sake of the argument, at least, that the number coming is to increase and the change in racial origin to become more marked, what then? These are some of the questions to be considered.

And must the whole discussion end with a question? Yes and no. As far as it can be treated in a short paper merely intended to outline the nature of the problem,— yes, though that is doubtless displeasing to the mind that demands a short, satisfactory answer, whether true or false. But the matter is not altogether indefinite. Some few things are pretty clear: (1) This people, before the great tides of immigration began, was mainly Baltic and mainly of excellent stock. (2) This people has been influenced to a considerable degree by immigration. Probably the racial effects of the early immigration were not great but to-day conditions are different. There has been a change in the racial origin of our immigration, a change in the method of selection, and a change in the conditions of this country. (3) If present conditions, laws, and tendencies continue (a large "if," this) there will clearly be considerable racial change in the future.

Whether such a change would be a good or a bad thing, each must decide for himself, and it rests with the American people to decide whether for their own interests and for the interests of the world in general they desire the change.

X.

Needy Families in Their Homes.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY LEE K. FRANKEL, PH. D., SUPERINTENDENT OF THE UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES, NEW YORK, CHAIRMAN.

Certain changes of attitude in comparatively recent years in the treatment and care of needy families are so significant that a careful interpretation of the reasons and causes for such changes is desirable for presentation to and discussion by the Conference.

It is particularly noticeable that within recent years, there has been a slow but marked change in charitable nomenclature. The literature of charity shows a less frequent use of the terms "pauper" and "pauperism," and a more frequent acceptation of expressions such as "needy families," "impoverished families," "poverty" and "dependents." It is common usage to-day to speak of "adequacy of relief" rather than of "no relief," "work rather than relief," "unworthy of relief," or similar expressions which were common a decade ago. We hear more of "social uplift" and less of "individual degeneracy" and "hereditary tendencies" to which Warner devoted a chapter in his classic on American Charities.

It is the purpose of this report to attempt to point out the underlying motives that have inspired these marked alterations in attitude, to suggest the causes that have developed them, and to define certain basic principles which may tend to even greater modifications in our charitable philosophy in the future.

The subject of charity administration is of interest from the historical stand point; in fact the tendency in charitable relief has been based on principles that have been handed down for ages and which have rather uncommon foundations. These foundations are not only social and economic but likewise distinctly religious in their origin. From one point of view, the religious influence that largely characterizes modern philanthropy and that has characterized all philanthropy, has been a very predominant

* Discussion on Needy Families, pp. 503, 514.

one and its influence is still markedly felt to-day. The attitude of the church towards the poor and the conception of various religious beliefs that poverty is a natural and existent good or evil, — one perfectly normal to human society, has been all pervasive and is to-day still powerful in its influence and its ramifications. Whether this principle be expressed in terms of pagan philosophy advocating the glories of poverty and self-abnegation, or in terms of other religious concepts more economic in character, implying that "the poor shall not cease out of the land," or "that the poor ye have always with you," it is true that as a result of this particular religious doctrine, society at large has assumed that there must always be, and always will be, a large number of impoverished and poverty-stricken individuals, and that whatever efforts we may make to the contrary must perforce be palliative, since poverty itself will be ever present and permanent.

The particular change in attitude referred to above has its foundation, possibly unconsciously, in the acceptance of a belief that the above premises are not altogether true, and that it is possible to produce benign conditions and so to alter the social fabric that poverty and its attending and resultant pauperism may, in a large measure, be eradicated.

It is particularly true in the United States that we are beginning to discover that the amount of actual pauperism existing here is not so alarming as we had been led to believe. One of the most recent and most valuable additions to the literature of this subject are studies that have been made by a number of the more important charitable organizations in the United States, which show that there is no material persistence of dependency; that such dependency as is found proves itself in time to be of a temporary character. We are discovering that the individual dependent family, in the main, under proper conditions and environment, becomes independent and self-supporting. Less stress is being laid on the demoralizing influences within the family and more on the result of environment and standards of living.

Both the records of the United Hebrew Charities of New York and of the Charity Organization Society of New York, indicate very clearly that but a small fraction of the families entrusted to their care are to be found enrolled as beneficiaries after definite periods of time, and that the problem which confronts

these organizations and others is almost exclusively the problem of temporary distress which needs to be alleviated. Nor do the observations of these two organizations represent average conditions. New York is abnormal with respect to the question of poverty and smaller cities and town, with a less anomalous population, will show an even smaller percentage of permanent applicants for relief. Along with the richest, New York has the poorest of the country's citizens, and the small amount of permanent dependence is for this reason doubly significant.

The conclusions which must be drawn from these and similar studies indicate that the time is ripe for a restatement of our philanthropic position; for amendments and alterations of our charitable nomenclature and definitions; for a new tabulation of the causes that underlie poverty and pauperism, and in particular, for a better line of demarkation between the technical terms "poverty" and "pauperism." Possibly more injury has been done through the confusion of these terms and there has been more waste of philanthropic effort and energy, due to such confusion, than can be remedied in the immediate future.

The actual statistics of conditions in the United States largely bear out these statements regarding the infrequency of chronic dependence. The report recently issued by the Census Department on Benevolent Institutions shows a total expenditure for maintenance and care in all the public and private charitable institutions in the United States of a total slightly over 55 millions of dollars. Of this amount, however, nearly 15 millions was received from the inmates themselves, showing an actual outlay for charitable relief in institutions of 40 millions. Of this aggregate, 16 millions of dollars was spent for the maintenance of hospitals, which to-day can hardly be grouped under the headings of "charities," since they cater to but a slight extent to permanent dependents, and the relief which they offer is, in the main, of a very temporary kind. In fact, the attitude of the public towards treatment in hospitals is rapidly becoming comparable to its attitude towards public school education. In other words, free hospital relief is assumed to be the right of the citizen, equally with the right to educate his children. This leaves a balance of 24 millions expended in the institutions of the United States, almost exclusively for the care of orphans, the aged, the deaf and the blind, divided up as follows:

In Orphanages	$9,000,000
Permanent Homes	9,000,000
Temporary Homes	2,500,000
Institutions for Deaf and Blind	3,500,000

The statistics regarding the number of inmates in the charitable institutions of the United States bears out the conclusion that dependency is not on the increase. On January 1st, 1904, the total population of all institutions, public and private, was 283,809. There were admitted during the year a total of 2,040,372, and remaining at the end of the year, a total of 284,362, an almost negligible increase of 553 during the year. These figures, if they are correct, completely refute the statement made by Hunter in his book on "Poverty," that there are about 4,000,000 persons in the United States who are public paupers. It is difficult to reconcile Hunter's figures which show that 5 per cent. of the population of the United States are paupers with those of the Census Bureau, which from actual observation, demonstrate that only 0.35 per cent. of the population are institutional inmates particularly if it be further noted that of the 284,362 inmates recorded above, 189,285 or 65 per cent. were in orphanages, hospitals and temporary homes; practically none of whom should be classified as paupers. The actual residuum of permanent dependency in institutions narrows down to less than 100,000 in permanent homes and in institutions for the deaf and blind.

No figures are available showing the amount of charitable relief expended in the United States, outside of institutions. If, however, the statistics from any of our large cities or well-populated states are taken into consideration, it is evident that the amounts spent either in organized public or private charity, for the care of the poor in their homes is proportionately smaller than the amount spent for their care in either public or private institutions. In addition to what is spent in organized form, there is still an amount which cannot be included, spent in disorganized and indiscriminate charity. The probability is that even this amount is somewhat exaggerated. While no definite statement can be made, it is fairly reasonable to suppose that the total expenditure for the care of the dependent poor in the United States is approximately 50 millions of dollars, or about 62 cents per capita of the population. Unfortunately there are no figures of previous years with which these last ones might be compared,

in order to determine whether there has been an actual increase or decrease in the number of dependents and in the amounts spent for their welfare.

Whatever the amounts may be, there is nothing as yet particularly alarming in the cost which the country must pay for the support of those who become charges upon its bounty; particularly if it is discoverable that those who are thus dependents are, to a large extent, in such condition because of negligence and short-sightedness on the part of the community itself.

This brings us back to our original premises,— namely — the causes that underlie existing destitution and pauperism. The conventional attitude of the public at large to the poor in particular is frequently one either of condescension or of reproach. The classical, technical causes for pauperism that have been given in our text books and that have become part and parcel of our charitable phraseology lay and have laid the responsibility for dependency to a large extent upon the dependent himself.

We have classified these causes into subjective and objective, — causes lying within the family and without the family. We have assumed a list of causes which have become stereotyped and under which we have attempted to classify every individual family brought to our notice. Either the individual's lack of independence is due to intemperance or to immorality, or to unhealthy appetite, or to disregard of family ties, or where the causes are presumably extraneous, to bad climatic conditions, to evil associations and surroundings, or to unprovided-for emergencies, which presume lack of forethought on the part of the individual, such as widowhood or orphanhood. The confusion that has arisen in the situation by mixing the word "poverty" with "pauperism" has led us to ascribe causes for the former which are not causes for poverty, but are causes for that form of chronic poverty which has become parasitic and which we today understand by pauperism. What is of most importance of all is the fact that the relief which has been offered has been applied mainly to remedy effects and results rather than to remove causes; in other words, has been palliative rather than preventive. Even the preventive agencies, of which we hear so much, and of which too much cannot be said, have dealt largely not with the underlying causes producing poverty, but rather with the secondary causes, which have been mistaken for pri-

mary ones. As a result, even the preventive work that has been done is to-day largely lacking in constructive character, for the reason that it is not sufficiently comprehensive to take cognizance of the fundamental causes.

For these reasons, it is timely to consider an entire restatement of principles, to tabulate a new set of causes, if we wish to accomplish more permanent and more lasting results, and if in particular, we desire to eradicate not only pauperism, but poverty as well.

Stripped of all verbiage and reduced to their elements, we find that all existing poverty and pauperism are attributable and may be attributed to one of three major causes; for the sake of clearness, however, we shall define four causes. These may be summarized under the following headings:

1. Ignorance.
2. Industrial inefficiency.
3. Exploitation of labor.
4. Defects in governmental supervision of the welfare of citizens.

All of the other causes that have been given can readily be included in any of these four headings, and are as a rule, secondary causes, arising from these original ones. Orphanhood or widowhood are of themselves not causes for poverty. The widow whose husband has left her in affluent circumstances requires no charitable intervention. The same may be said of the well-to-do sick or crippled. The orphan whose parent has willed him a competence requires no asylum or institution. These social conditions are not causes of poverty. It is only when they are accompanied by poverty that they become appalling. The actual causes of poverty are those assigned above.

Without attempting or wishing in any way to predict a millenium, it may be safely assumed that if the best thought and the best efforts of the community were to be directed towards the removal of the four above mentioned causes, the time may come when we may begin to contemplate the destruction and abolition of charitable institutions and agencies, rather than to consider a constant increase in their number. If we can rid ourselves of the fatalism of belief that there must inevitably be a certain class of the population whom we classify as "poor," if we can get away from our self-complacency that leads us to feel that we have done

our duty in alleviating existing distress, and if we can take the broader and more enlightened viewpoint that in this best of all possible worlds, it is feasible to so revolutionize conditions as to make every individual independent of extraneous philanthropic intervention, we may develop a state of society in which the word "charity" shall be largely obsolete. Let us apply this idea to the causes thus far assigned, in the hope of discovering what may be done to improve existing conditions.

IGNORANCE.

Volumes may be written on the general results of ignorance and lack of education. If we are to overcome these, the first requirement is a radical change in the policy of our public school system. This form of education which is open to the masses and which is meant for all of the population, the rich and the poor alike, must become more than a system devoted merely to teaching the three R's, and to equipping the average boy and girl with just sufficient knowledge to enable them to earn their living after a haphazard fashion. Our public schools must become the centers from which shall emanate all that instruction which shall thoroughly equip pupils for future contact with life. It must be sufficiently broad and sufficiently comprehensive to teach the young man and the young woman,— the coming citizens of the state,— all branches of education and all forms of knowledge which they need when they become men and women. The public schools should be sufficiently individualistic to train the individual child along his individual bent and to furnish him with an equipment that will enable him to enter the ranks of fellow-laborers and to compete with them in the struggle for existence. It should teach him such an intimate knowledge of himself that he may guard himself against the inroads of disease and should warn him against the results of vice and crime. It should train him with a knowledge of the purposes for which he is put in the world so that when he arrives at the age of manhood he may become not only an additional economic and industrial unit, but a social and moral unit as well. A thorough knowledge of household economy is as essential for the growing girl as botany or the higher calculus. It is equally important from the stand-point of society that public school training shall include in its curriculum along

with arithmetic, reading and writing, a course in hygiene, physiology and anatomy. These should be taught not as they are to-day, but in such a manner that the men and women who are to be the progenitors of the coming race, shall in their youth be made acquainted with the natural physiological processes of the sexes, so that they may be fully prepared for the responsibilities of parenthood, be able to bring healthy, normal children into the world, and be intelligent enough to rear them successfully.

Possibly no organization that has come into existence in the last few years is of more importance in its significance than the recently organized Society for the Study of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. It is time that in our educational system we put aside the particular form of prudery which prevents us from teaching the men and women of the coming generation those essentials of themselves which they must know in order to avert the dangers of excesses both of a physical and of a moral kind. The part which gross ignorance of such important subjects plays in the realm of dependency should sound a note of warning to our educators and pedagogues.

INDUSTRIAL INEFFICIENCY.

The question of industrial inefficiency is of equal importance with that of lack of education. In the recently published volume entitled "The Long Day," the statement is made by the author that a large percentage of the immorality to be found among working girls was due to their unwillingness to work, because they did not know how to work. This is true of all forms of industry. Much of existing poverty can be directly traced to the inability of the wage earner in the family to obtain lucrative employment, by reason of his ignorance of any particular form of craftsmanship. Our public school systems, in connection with their other duties, must assume the responsibility of training young men and women in gainful industries, and of equipping both boys and girls so thoroughly that any question of industrial inefficiency and possible eventual destitution may be obviated. Recently, when the principal of a school suggested that a delinquent boy should be sent to a reformatory and be taught a trade, Judge Lindsey of the Children's Court of Denver retorted:

"Why did you not teach him one before he came here?" No better illustration of the above thought could be found.

EXPLOITATION OF LABOR.

Exploitation of labor is of all causes of dependency the most complicated and the one that it will be most difficult to uproot and to eradicate. The evolution of industry during the centuries has resulted in a condition to-day in which the large bulk of the population has no capital other than that involved in its daily labor. In many instances, this labor is so directed as to bring the minimum of return to the laborer and the maximum of return to the employer, or as Aveling has put it: "Labor is paid for, but not paid." Under these circumstances it only too frequently happens that standards of living must be maintained which are sub-normal and which ultimately bring about destitution and dependency. Under present conditions, the laborer has no protection excepting in infrequent instances, against incidental results of employment, such as accident and death. In even fewer instances is provision made against incapacity and invalidity. The stress of competition requires but too frequently that women shall engage in gainful industry with the resultant neglect of childsen, where the mother is the wage earner, and the gradual disintegration of the home life. Nothing is probably more important than a re-adjustment of the relations between capital and labor so that the wage earner shall be secured the cumulative benefits of his labor for himself and for his family, in case of accident or incapacity, and for his family in case of death. Charitable organizations, particularly those that give material relief, are a unit in stating that a large amount of the dependency which is brought to their notice is due to orphanhood and widowhood, for the reason that the deceased wage earner has, during his life, been unable to make provision for his family. We need to develop some form of insurance, either compulsory or voluntary in which labor will be accepted in lieu of money, in the payment of premiums, and which will give to all workmen, protection for themselves and their progeny. If in addition, we can bring about standards of wage which shall be commensurate with decent standards of living, we shall discover the best preventives of poverty and pauperism.

DEFECTS IN GOVERNMENTAL SUPERVISION.

Of the last cause of destitution and poverty, the lack of provision on the part of the government for the welfare of its citizens, much has been done in the direction of overcoming this defect in the last few decades. Communities and states are waking up to the necessity of adequate legislation to protect citizens, and particularly, the working classes, against exploitation of every kind. Factory inspection, the safeguarding of childhood for study and play, examination of food and drink, and prevention of disease are manifestations of this tendency. Much of this legislation is still in its infancy, and must withstand the assaults of unscrupulous and partisan opponents to whom only the mercenary side of the question appeals. We must promulgate a new code of business ethics which shall have more than dollars and cents for foundations. It must be possible for the average individual to live in a decent and sanitary habitation, even if the percentage of return to the investor be appreciably lowered.

Furthermore, the individual must be protected, not only against the exploitation of others, but against himself; must be protected against the results of his own ignorance, and against the vice and crime which arises therefrom.

Summarized, the Committee offers the alluring proposition that poverty, the sordid, grinding poverty which eventually spells dependency, is eradicable and preventable. It is not assumed that an ideal state of society may develop, in which all shall be rich and none shall be poor. It is, however, possible to conceive of a condition of affairs in which each social unit shall be economically independent, and be able to maintain such independence through his own brain and brawn, provided his environment is made sufficiently favorable by the safeguards which Government as represented by the nation or the state or the community, may throw around him.

A PROBLEM IN CO-OPERATION.

BY H. S. BRAUCHER, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF PORTLAND, MAINE.

Three years ago this Conference assembled in Atlanta. To-day a strong, efficient, charity organization is meeting the

needs of that city. Two years ago this Conference met in Portland, Maine. At that gathering the President of the Portland Associated Charities said: "This National Conference may easily become epoch making for the charities, corrections and social betterment movements in Portland. I am profoundly convinced that this metropolitan city is ripe for the ideals and methods for which this Conference stands." These words of prophecy have been fulfilled. In the light of Portland's experience it would seem that cities with charitable societies struggling for existence, can desire no greater boon than that their citizens may be enlightened and inspired by the sane, courageous, buoyant atmosphere of this Conference. No such co-operation as exists in Portland to-day would have been possible but for the impression made by your sessions two years ago.

As many of you remember, the Associated Charities of Portland was organized over twenty-five years ago, at a time when there were many relief societies in the city. The number has increased until now Portland, a city of 56,000 people, has fifty-three relief giving organizations, in addition to the relief departments of the various fraternal orders. Some of these societies are nearly a century old, and, with reason, proud of their long history of usefulness. In the year 1904 alone, about fifteen hundred families, representing perhaps 5,000 people, or ten per cent. of the population, had been given charitable aid. One society restricted in general the amount of its help to $2.00 a month, whatever the conditions. Another society gave each year a half ton of coal or a half cord of wood to every worthy and destitute applicant,— no more, no less, whatever the size of the family or the need. No society in the city was ready to assume the responsibility of providing adequately for a family incapacitated for a few weeks. In many instances the total value of the doles meted out to a family by four or five societies in the course of a year did not exceed fifteen dollars. Three societies together gave one woman help valued at $4.50. An honest, industrious widow was helped to small amounts by seven relief societies, five of whom had their different visitors call upon her. Her name is on the books of all the larger relief societies, her condition has been discussed at their meetings, her private affairs are public property. Not long ago a close friend of hers said: "Mrs. Blank is not so reluctant to be helped or to tell her private

affairs as formerly. She is beginning to think she has a right to demand help." Such was the effect upon needy families of substituting doles from many societies for adequate relief from one.

The workers themselves were wasting valuable time and energy. About seventy per cent. of all the families helped by the societies were being aided from more than one source. Investigators from one society were duplicating the work of friends in another. It requires hours of precious time for visitors to come to understand a family's needs. Where five societies were helping the same family, five hours were spent where one would suffice. Five different groups considered the family's need and tried to devise a wise plan, or five conflicting wise plans. Five secretaries took the time to enter the facts about the same family. Consultation with the Associated Charities was usually after the relief had been given, if at all, only six of the many societies submitting lists of the families they were helping.

To secure a division of labor and thorough co-operation between fifty-three old, entrenched relief agencies, a central organization with one secretary, employed for only two hours a day for nine months of the year, at a salary of two hundred dollars, seemed totally inadequate. The marvelously splendid work which the efficient, self-sacrificing secretary achieved with the limitations imposed upon her, helped the public to see what might be accomplished if the limitations were removed and adequate service provided. Charitable citizens in general felt that the time had come for a forward movement. All Portland citizens are justly proud of the generosity, sacrifice and personal service recorded in Portland's philanthropic history, but they are also determined that the future shall be a steady advance which shall honor the past. The enthusiastic rallying of charitable men and women around the new movement this year is proof that the modern philanthropic ideals advanced were already enthroned in the minds of Portland people, at least as vague longings. The unfailing response of Portland to the presentation of greater opportunities leads a stranger to feel that its progressiveness and intelligence make the world's great problems — like that of co-operation — easier of solution in Maine's invigorating atmosphere.

The problem confronting the Portland Charities on the first

of August, 1905, when the two full-time secretaries began their work, has been stated. We may now consider the means which have been effective in unifying the philanthropic work of the city.

The quiet, every day work of the Associated Charities has been the most effective means of securing co-operation. The year's work began in a small way with the endeavor to find each applicant's real condition and to remove the cause of his dependence. If assistance was necessary, care was taken that it should be adequate. Many families came to the Association, after having been helped for years, and it was found that family, church, and other natural connections had been ignored. It came as a new idea to many of the workers, as well as to the applicants, that relatives were under special obligations to help their own. Business men, and some prominent in public life, who were contributing to relief funds, were allowing their mothers to depend upon the same funds to which they contributed. In several churches, members of the relief committee were allowing their own mothers to be helped by outside charitable societies. A business man who was president of a relief organization was permitting his mother to receive outside aid. Searching investigation revealed that many who had claimed to be friendless had good homes open to them. Within two hours one morning the four following applications from people accustomed to yearly help were received: (1) The first was from the mother of a prominent, well-to-do business man and city official. (2) The second applicant was the mother of a business man, living with him in comparative luxury. (3) The third was a widow, found to be herself contributing generously to needy families. She wished to withdraw her application at once if there was to be investigation, as she did not need aid. (4) The fourth was a boarding house keeper with three grown daughters living with her and able to work if necessary. "What are the societies for? Why should my son help me, when there are relief societies with invested funds? Some one is going to receive that money, why not I?" was frequently heard.

Societies and individuals helping where an agency was already striving to meet the need, were notified of the facts, and some have learned through such experiences to consult the Association before giving aid. The willingness of the central office to receive all the disagreeable and difficult tasks of the various

societies has won a measure of co-operation by bringing those organizations, at least occasionally, into touch with our methods.

It will be some time before the transition from the practice of giving small doles to a system of adequate relief can be completely effected. In the meantime the Association has been arranging to supplement the amount of relief which any one of the societies could be persuaded to give, by money obtained from philanthropic citizens, who were willing, in the individual cases, after listening to the facts about the family, to contribute without knowing the name. Were it not for these private supplements, it would be necessary to lay the name of the family and their condition before four or five societies before the needed amount could be secured. As some of these societies have forty people present at their meetings, the publicity would be, as it has been, a great humiliation to self-respecting families. In a few years it is hoped that this plan will so lighten the calls upon the various societies that they will vote adequate relief to each family helped. Old friends and former employers have been found who were willing to provide for a family when they would not have contributed to a general fund. Men acquainted with some family whose needs have been adequately provided for through the Associated Charities, where before it had depended on doles, have become hearty co-operators with us.

Sixty-five men and women, under the direction of the secretaries and of a volunteer of much experience and ability, have been enlisted as friendly visitors in the last eight months. The very efficient work of these visitors has won much support and co-operation. The Associated Charities has, by request, been finding suitable visitors for some of the families aided by churches and societies. Members of the relief agencies working in a friendly visiting group are gaining higher ideals for their own relief work.

Much hard work has been done in finding places for the less efficient men and women who belong to the class continually applying for relief. Lack of industrial opportunities in Portland has led the Association to send letters to employers in various cities and villages in Maine, seeking their co-operation, and often securing employment for men. Fifty families have been helped by work which should be permanent, and fifty-five by temporary work, making over one hundred families aided by this depart-

ment. A society or an individual offering something in great demand, will be sought out. The work done in finding places for the class of people whom the employment bureaus reject, has been one of the most powerful factors in bringing societies and individuals to us.

Some mistakes fatal to co-operation have been avoided through the sound advice of busy men who have spared hours of valuable time to give the benefit of their opinions. The Association has secured as its leaders the men who mould public sentiment. Members of the Executive Committee have spent as careful effort in investigating people proposed for positions of leadership, as the Association spends in looking into the records of applicants. Sometimes ten men have been investigated before a single man was selected for the place. It was understood the Association was not seeking men as figureheads, or for their social standing; that only workers and men who would accept responsibility were desired. Much of the time spent in securing these leaders would have seemed, to an outsider, wasted, but in forming public opinion, carrying out wise policies, fostering co-operation, these leaders have proved the wisdom of their selection. The achievements are due, not to the work of one or two, but to the services of nearly one hundred men and women. The task of personally interviewing members of other societies who had it in their power to further co-operation, though slow and tedious, has been most effective.

It has been necessary for the Association leaders to keep in close touch with the pulse of the community in striving to adapt the ideal to what existing conditions made possible of achievement, and to present our plans in the form which would be most acceptable to the societies. Here the criticism of those opposed to the work has been invaluable. After consultation with various conservative leaders in the societies, it was evident that some relief agencies would be unwilling, at present, to take the first investigation out of the hands of their volunteer investigating committees; that some societies would not agree to consult with the Association before helping; that a few societies would not send us lists of those helped. However, more and more cases are being turned over to the Association for investigation; the consultation before helping is constantly increasing; the Association has long lists of families helped by societies which are un-

willing to report. The plan of co-operation growing most naturally out of local ideals was what is called the "group plan," — each agency helping only those families not being helped by other agencies, and the Associated Charities supplementing such aid by pensions where necessary. Each agency thus becomes responsible for a certain number of families. The general secretary has already received invitations to meet regularly with some of these societies. Several have come to inquire how they may better their work. In this way our ideals will be gradually attained in the various groups.

The Association has striven to keep the public informed of the work. Monthly meetings, with an attendance at times of two and three hundred, have aided. Talks before churches and clubs, a pamphlet stating the facts of the situation, conferences upon special points with the various societies, an average of a column a week in each of the daily papers, have all helped.

Just what co-operation has resulted from this work? Twenty of our relief agencies have agreed not to aid families helped by other societies. Eighteen of these plan to give adequate relief. Practically the whole charitable world of Portland has now recognized the ideal of adequate care by a single source as wise, and is working toward it. Though not all of the societies report, over eight hundred cases have come before us in one way or another in the last eight months, besides about six hundred more concerning whom we have no other information than that they have received help from a society.

One society has been investigating only at the time of the first application. Some of the families have had help for ten years without any renewed inquiry into their condition. The Association has offered to interview, investigate and report on all their applicants, free of charge, their agent and the secretaries of the Association working together. The society, which is the most heavily endowed of any in the city, has voted to accept the offer on trial.

The Board of Overseers of the Poor, after two conferences with the Executive Committee of the Associated Charities, unanimously decided that all applying to them for the first time for help be referred to the Associated Charities, who should see if the family could not be provided for without calling upon the city; that the Associated Charities obtain friendly visitors for

families being helped by the city; that the city, where it does aid, should furnish adequate relief. This action may have far-reaching results.

A special effort has been made to secure the co-operation of the churches. Pastors were surprised when their attention was called to the number of their families receiving help from various sources. One of the oldest and most respected members of a wealthy church was found to be receiving aid from the city. Many churches, though wealthy and giving to charitable objects, had not attempted to care for their own members needing assistance. Family after family was brought to their attention, until finally the nineteen larger Protestant churches have, with one exception, taken up the complete care of their own poor, with the understanding that whenever the load becomes burdensome, they request the Associated Charities to find support for such destitute families as they shall turn over to the Association. Though this is a complete overturning of past church relief policies in Portland, the churches are enthusiastic over the change.

The churches are not only caring for their own poor; they are also regarding the Associated Charities as the organ through which they work together for the unchurched poor. The friendly visitors secured have been organized along church lines. All the leading churches have bands of their best workers helping individual families under the immediate direction of the Association. Since social work must be spiritual, and the workers must come largely from those inspired by religious faith, and the churches of Portland, both Roman Catholic and Protestant, are manned by broad, tolerant, strong men, it seemed natural for Portland to make the church the unit upon which the philanthropic work is based. The plan has resulted in bringing out the loyalty, as well as the co-operation, of Jewish, Roman Catholic and Protestant religious bodies. Several churches have accpted the Associated Charities as one of the regular departments of church work.

The co-operation of the community is shown by the staff of workers,— eighty-six men and women on the twelve different committees, sixty-five friendly visitors, three hundred people sharing in one way or another in the work. Volunteer leaders and workers are largely responsible for whatever has been accomplished.

Nor should the powerful influence of the enthusiasm produced by the Portland National Conference be forgotten. The Association has also been aided in its efforts to unite the philanthropic workers of Portland in organized warfare against poverty, inefficiency and disease, by the greatest spirit of our age,— the same spirit which has led labor into unions, churches into federations, governments into international tribunals,— the striving after unity and the final recognition that all are parts of one whole. Though the Portland movement for co-operation embodied the tendency of the age and represented the loyal endeavors of many, it had its inception in the brain of our president and was formed by his hands. His faith, courage and wise counsel have made him the indomitable leader whose very presence makes defeat impossible and leads all to desire to co-operate with him,— the Theodore Roosevelt of our movement,— Dr. J. W. Magruder.

STANDARDS OF LIVING.

BY S. E. FORMAN, M. D., WASHINGTON, D. C.

Standards of living are sometimes voluntarily set up and adhered to as a matter of choice, and sometimes they are imposed from without by a hard and grinding necessity. Within the region of choice, the standards vary with the income, the habits, and the aims of those who do the choosing. A man with a yearly income of $1,000 may choose to live very plainly and save a little money, or he may choose to live a little better and save no money at all. A second man with an income of twice $1,000 may set up a standard like that adopted by the first and save a considerable sum or he may choose to spend all. Within the region of necessity, that is to say, among the very poor, the variation in the standards of living cannot be great.

A large segment of society, perhaps one-fifth or one-fourth of the total population, moves along the poverty line, sometimes on the line, sometimes above it, sometimes below it, but never very far from it. The standard of living which is imposed upon this class is a tolerably definite affair and it is the purpose of this paper to give an account of this standard.

Since the statements which I shall make are based upon a

study of actual conditions, I think I ought at the outset to try to convey to your minds a just notion of the kind of people whose standards of living I am asking you to consider. For the sake of clearness on this point I will describe by way of illustration a few of the families whose affairs have been studied:

A family of ten, husband, wife, an aged aunt and seven children. The husband is a coal heaver and earns about $10 per week. A family of eight, husband, wife and six children. The husband works for a construction company, earning about $2.00 a day, but loses many days on account of bad weather. A family of seven, the husband, wife and five children. Father and son are laborers and receive each $1.50 a day in good weather, but earn nothing in bad weather. A family of seven, husband, wife and five children. Husband is a teamster at $9.00 a week, and is quite regularly employed. A family of seven, a widow and her six children. The mother, a charwoman, earns $5.00 a week regularly and sometimes $7.00 or $8.00 a week. A family of eight, husband, wife and six small children. Income $1.52 a day. A family of eight, husband, wife and six children. The husband, a laborer in bridge construction receives $2.00 a day when the weather is good. A boy of sixteen adds $4.00 a week to the income. A family of six, husband, wife and four children. The husband is a street paver. He receives $1.75 a day in good weather. A family of four, a widow and her three children. The mother, a charwoman, receives $5.00 a week and the oldest boy $3.00 a week. A family of six, husband, wife and four small children. The husband, a teamster by trade, earns $2.50 a day, but loses a great deal of time on account of bad weather.

These examples, I hope, make it plain that the paper is dealing with a normal and a very large class. Moreover, the families studied are representative of a sober, industrious and intelligent class. Nevertheless they are in all cases very poor and live of necessity from hand to mouth. What then are the features of that standard of living which is imposed upon that large and useful class, a class, be it borne in mind, which is numbered by the millions?

Obviously the food element comes first. Insurance policies may lapse, rent may fall in arrears, the purchase of clothes may be postponed, the body may even continue to shiver with cold until there is money for fuel but the supply of food must never

stop. What of the food standards of the very poor? Twenty families for a period of five weeks showed an average weekly food expenditure of about $1.00 per male adult. But I would not have you pay much attention to that average. If you wish to use it as roughly designating the line of insufficient nourishment in food expenditures, well and good. I do, however, wish to call your attention to the fact that the food purchases of the poor fluctuate in a violent and distressing manner. A rent payment, or the sickness of a child, or the loss caused by two or three days of idleness, sometimes reduces the food expenditure of one week to half the amount it was another week. These fluctuations can only indicate *under-nourishment* in the lean weeks. In a well-to-do family there may be a great decrease in food expenditures without any decrease in the amount of nourishment. According to the authorities, there is no loss in nourishment when a change is made from a porter house steak to stewing beef. But the very poor in the lean times cannot turn to cheaper and more nutritious articles for the simple and coercive reason that they never use anything else but the cheapest and most nutritious articles. This statement, however, must be modified in respect to the article bread. When the poor spend least for food they spend most for bread. But bread is not a substitute for everything, and we must conclude that the violent fluctuations which occur from week to week in the food expenditures of the poor, mean that when the expenditures are very low there is not enough in the house to eat. And this is pretty sure to occur at least one week in the month, and that week is rent week.

When we compare the food expenditure of the poor with the total expenditure, we find that 80 per cent. of the families spend more than two-fifths of the total income, and 50 per cent. more than one-half the total income, for food. In the case of prosperous families it would hardly be worth while to compare the food expenditures with the total income, but in the case of the very poor the comparison is useful, for with them comfort, decency, and even health itself, depends upon what is left after food is bought.

What articles of diet does the standard of the poor place upon their tables? Bread, meat, potatoes, tea and coffee are the principal things. The bread is for the most part stale, that kind being cheaper. The meats are, pork, fat bacon, sausage and cheap

"stew beef." Occasionally round steak is bought, but the choice cuts do not appear. Seldom is there a fowl in the pot and in many families an egg is seldom if ever seen. Milk is not served regularly, nor is ice. Fruits, you will be sorry to learn, are not for the poor. Many families do not buy even apples or bananas, and oranges are utterly out of the question. Candy is bought occasionally, but ice cream never.

After food is bought the matter of shelter must be attended to. Between the problem of providing food and that of securing shelter there is this difference: When buying food there is a minimum expense below which the requirements of physical nature do not permit one to go, whereas, when securing shelter, there seems to be no such limit. There seems to be no house too cheap, no structure with a rental value too small, to prevent its being used as the habitation of human beings. In the downward march of poverty, therefore, the descent in housing conditions continues long after food conditions have reached their lowest point. This is shown by the rent payments of the families here considered. The widest difference in food expenditures (per male adult) was as one is to two; the widest difference in rent expenditures is as one is to four.

The actual rent payments made by these families can have but little interest for you. When I say that the average rent is $7.00, I convey to the mind no adequate notion of the kind of dwellings occupied, nor would it throw much light on the subject to state the average number of rooms in each house, for there are rooms and rooms, as every apartment dweller knows. The only way to learn anything useful about the housing conditions among the poor is to inspect the houses themselves. If you should do that you would find that the conveniences known as modern are not shared by the poor. I would like to put that fact as plainly and as pointedly as possible. The very poor do not have bath tubs and running water and gas, and sanitary plumbing and the like. As far as these things are concerned millions of our people are still living under conditions that are not modern, but medieval. The standard of shelter which prevails among these twenty families is in nearly every instance unlovely, unsanitary and brutalizing. This statement would not be significant were it not true that the houses considered are located in differ-

ent sections of the city and that every house is matched by tens, sometimes by hundreds of houses around it.

After the very poor have bought food and paid the rent there is little left for anything else and it is hardly worth while to talk about standards of living in respect to such things as clothes and furniture, and fuel and insurance. In the purchase of these things only a haphazard and makeshift policy is possible. The very poor get their clothing as they can. The housewives are deprived of the joys of shopping for there is no shopping fund. Sometimes more prosperous relatives give their cast off clothing, sometimes the church assists, sometimes the rummage sale is patronized. If a suit of new clothes is ever bought it is bought on the installment plan.

Fuel is likewise secured in a haphazard fashion. Of our twenty families five contrived to get their fuel without buying it. In one family the husband all the year round was constantly bringing home something for the stove, now a rejected railroad tie, now a pocket full of coal. In another, on Sundays the husband and children systematically exploited the ash heaps made by the dumping of the city carts. Another family provided fuel from a grove near by, the husband cutting the wood at odd times and lugging it home. In still another case where the husband was a rag picker, wood picking was combined with rag picking. If you will keep your eyes open you will see in any city in summer as well as in winter the fuel gatherers trudging along with their burdens. The best of thrift, however, does not prevent the fuel problem from pressing heavily upon the poor. There can be but one fire, and in cold weather all must huddle together in the kitchen, the only room in the house that is not as cold as a barn. When the coal is bought it must be bought by the peck or bushel at rates that raise the price two or three dollars per ton.

Furniture is bought on the instalment plan when it is bought at all. The very poor never dream of buying outright an important article of furniture, a chair, a table, a stove. If they get such things as these they must pay for them a little at a time. And here something may be said about the part the instalment system plays in the lives of the poor. Sometimes as much as a fifth or a fourth of the total income — practically all that is left after the food and rent expenditures are met — goes to meet instalment dues. Courts and alleys and little streets teem with in-

stalment men, some on their rounds collecting, others soliciting new business, carrying with them sometimes the very articles to be sold. Clothing, furniture and insurance are regularly bought on the instalment plan, and very often even rent is collected weekly and thereby becomes an instalment payment.

It would be wasting your time for me to point out to you the bad features of the instalment system, for you know that it is bad financially, morally and socially. But while we condemn it the poor uphold it. "I know as well as anybody," said a poor widow, who was paying for a stove by instalments, "that I will pay more for the stove than it is worth, but I would rather do that than freeze, and I am glad I can get it on the instalment plan."

This is a practical world for all of us and for the very poor it is intensely practical. The instalment man enters a humble home and spreads some rugs upon the bare floor. They add so much to the comfort and cheer of the room that the housewife is constrained to consider their purchase. She makes this calculation and that, and finds that by pinching a little here and a little there she might be able to save each week the twenty-five cents necessary to buy the rugs. She reflects that she could get along without them but she reflects also that the oldest daughter is approaching womanhood and that the girl will be more likely to have decent companions if she has a decent home in which to receive them. The good woman is revolving a moral as well as a financial question, and if she takes the rugs, if she decides to incur a little more debt for the sake of a little more decency, what will the social philosopher have to say? Another illustration: The instalment man comes into the house with some rocking chairs. The wife who has just left the wash-tub is invited to take a seat in one of the chairs. She hasn't sat in a comfortable chair before for a long time and as her tired body reposes in the rocker she is quite overcome by a delicious sense of rest. Oh, if she could only have such a chair to come to at times and rest her aching bones! The cravings of physical nature suppress any qualms she may have as to buying on the instalment plan, and on that plan she buys the chair, paying too much for it and not seeing her way clear to paying for it at all. She has committed a financial sin, but who will say that it is one that ought not to be forgiven?

In conclusion, I want to call your attention to the losses which the very poor sustain by reason of bad bargains which they are compelled to make. They lose on their food, on their clothes, on their furniture, on their insurance and even on their rent, and it is precisely in these compulsory losses that the principle of poverty resides. The poor housewife is perhaps eager above all persons to make good bargains, but the meagreness of her purse prevents her from making them. She fain would buy six bars of soap for a quarter instead of buying a single bar for five cents, but she knows that if so much is spent for soap there will not be enough left for food. She would like to have for her large family a bushel of potatoes which she could get for a dollar, but a dollar spent for potatoes would mean immediate bankruptcy. So she buys a quarter of a peck of potatoes for eight cents and thereby loses at the rate of 28 cents on a bushel, an absolute loss of nearly 30 per cent.

We can see this good woman at the market late on Saturday night — for things are cheaper when they are bought late. She has gone her rounds and has nearly finished her purchases, but there are still butter, sugar, coffee and salt to be bought, and besides some matches are needed and there ought to be an onion for the soup. For all these things she has 25 cents remaining. Butter is 30 cents a pound, sugar 5 cents, coffee 15 cents, salt 5 cents a large sack or 3 cents a small sack (the latter being half as large as the former), matches three boxes for 5 cents or 2 cents a box. The purchase of a pound of butter cannot be thought of; the purchase of a half pound would leave but 10 cents for sugar, coffee, salt, matches and onion. If all the desired articles are to be bought the remaining 25 cents must be skillfully spent. Practice has taught our housewife the art of skillful division. She buys a quarter of a pound of butter for 8 cents, a half pound of sugar for 3 cents, half a pound of coffee for 8 cents, a small sack of salt for 3 cents, a box of matches for 2 cents and has a cent left for the onion. She has lost heavily on every one of these articles including the onion, and she knows she has lost.

These compulsory losses occur all along the line. On clothing and furniture the loss varies from 20 per cent. to 40 per cent.; on insurance it is always as much as 50 per cent.; on fuel purchased in small quantities it is at least 25 per cent. What is the actual total loss which the poor sustain by reason of their bad

bargains? Precisely to what extent are the poor destroyed by their poverty? A very careful and elaborate study enables us to give a tolerably satisfactory answer to this question. And the answer is a very cruel one: The amount of the leakage caused by the bad bargains which the poor are compelled to make is fully 10 per cent. of the income. When, therefore, we figure on standards of living for the very poor we must subtract from the normal earnings the one-tenth which the poor must lose simply because they are poor.

These are the conditions which an analysis of the lives of the very poor brings to view. The analysis applies not to idlers or paupers, or criminals, but to a class of American citizens that does its full share in making the world around us the pleasant place it is. How many people live under such hard conditions we cannot tell, but I know, and you know, that in large cities there are acres and acres of families among whom the standard of living is such as I have described. I call it a standard of living, but I am aware there is a certain mockery in the phrase. A *standard* implies something set up, an ideal to work towards, but the very poor do not, and cannot, map out for themselves plans of living. In the daily and hourly struggle between Want and Have they find themselves held fast in the vise of an economic necessity and all they can do is to reach out blindly and hungrily seize upon what the day or hour may bring them.

We hope that some day the clutches of this vise in which the poor are held will be loosened and that men will be really free. If that day shall ever come I believe it will be the charity workers and the settlement workers that will have done the most to hasten it, for these are the workers who know most about the poor, and who must, therefore, be the teachers of the other workers.

RELIEF WORK OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

BY EDWIN D. SOLENBERGER, GENERAL MANAGER, ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

In 1890, under the title "In Darkest England and the Way Out," General William Booth, of the Salvation Army, announced to the world his elaborate scheme for social salvation, which he claimed, when put into execution, would remove poverty and

prevent its recurrence and also cure most of the other ills which afflict society. Although General Booth began his religious work in East London in 1865, it was not until January, 1877, that he evolved the idea of the military organization which he named the Salvation Army. It would be highly interesting to make a historical study of this remarkable movement, tracing its growth from the beginning, but the brief time at our disposal makes this impossible. Suffice it to say that the work was almost wholly religious in character up to 1890, when the social scheme was launched,— such charity work as was done prior to that being purely incidental. In the sixteen years since that date the Army has developed an almost world-wide system of lodging houses, industrial homes, food depots, prison gate homes, farm colonies, wood yards, second-hand stores, rescue homes, children's homes, and relief departments giving aid to needy families in their homes. It is our purpose in this paper to present merely a brief survey of the social relief work of the Salvation Army in the United States.

As sources of information about the work of the Army we have used all available literature including a monograph prepared by Ex-Commander Booth-Tucker for the Paris Exposition in 1900, on "The Social Relief Work of the Salvation Army in the United States," another, entitled "The Salvation Army in the United States," written in 1904 by Booth-Tucker; and a recent report of the Army for 1905 prepared by Commander Miss Booth, entitled "Light in Darkness." The local and provincial Army reports and the statements filed with the Secretary of State of New York by the Army have been consulted. Many competent and experienced observers of social work in various cities have given valuable assistance.

Probably it is not generally known that the work of the Salvation Army in the United States is carried on through three distinct corporations. The Salvation Army proper was incorporated in the United States in 1899 as a "Religious and Charitable Organization" by five of its paid officials under the laws of New York by special act of the legislature of that state, exempting it from taxation.

The Reliance Trading Company was incorporated in 1902 under the laws of the State of New Jersey, "with a capitalization of $300,000.00 — $150,000.00 preferred stock on which an inter-

est of six per cent. annually is paid, which is guaranteed by the Salvation Army (incorporated); and $150,000.00 common stock, owned and held by the Salvation Army (incorporated)." This corporation owns and publishes the War Cry, the official gazette of the Army in the United States; does the printing for the various departments of the Army; manufactures fountain pens; makes uniforms, bonnets and hats for the Army officers and soldiers; conducts an insurance department, and carries on other business enterprises.

In 1903 the Salvation Army Industrial Homes Company, was incorporated under the laws of the State of New Jersey and is "capitalized with a capital of $500,000.00,—$250,000.00 preferred shares, bearing interest at six per cent., the payment of which interest annually is guaranteed by The Salvation Army (incorporated); the $250,000.00 of common stock remains in the control of The Salvation Army, enabling The Salvation Army (incorporated) to control the Company through its Board of Directors, the Board of Directors of the Salvation Army Industrial Homes Company being composed of members of The Salvation Army." Like the Reliance Trading Company this Industrial Homes Company is authorized to carry on many different kinds of business for profit. In view of the fact that the Salvation Army (incorporated) holds most of the common stock, while the preferred stock of both corporations belongs to individuals, some of whom are officers of the Army, it is interesting to note that the Board of Directors are authorized in case of the liquidation or dissolution of said corporation, to pay to the holders of the preferred stock the "par amount of their preferred shares, accrued dividends and all instalments thereof, before any amount shall be payable to the holders of the common stock."

One of the chief difficulties in trying to arrive at definite conclusions concerning the Army's work is the untrustworthiness of their statistics. For example, undated cards attached to contribution boxes of the Salvation Army in Philadelphia, stated (May, 1905) that it "now operates 88 shelters for the Destitute. Over 2,500,000 Poor Sheltered per annum," while Commander Miss Booth announces in a recently circulated booklet "Light in Darkness," that on September 30, 1905, the Army had seventy-four (74) shelters, accommodating 2,822,180, practically 3,000,000 per year. Which of these two statements is correct and how

is either of them to be harmonized with an undated leaflet recently circulated, said at National Headquarters to refer to 1905, stating that the Army has in "the United States an annual provision of 3,000,000 *beds* for the poor." Are we to conclude from this that accommodation was furnished to 3,000,000 men or that a total of that many separate lodgings was given provided every bed in the shelter was taken every night? We are not told whether these lodgings were paid for or worked for or given free. It is plain that the Army by using such phrases as "shelters for the destitute," and "beds for the poor" wishes to convey the impression that these institutions are conducted as charitable enterprises. The Army has omitted from its published report the information that the "poor and destitute" who occupied the beds in these lodging houses paid in actual cash to the Salvation Army, for the year ending September 30, 1905, the sum of $311,819.32, which is exactly $21,730.12 more than the Army spent during the said year in maintaining these "shelters for the destitute." These figures have been secured from a statement which the Army is required by law to file with the Secretary of State of New York. Surely the Army ought to be more frank in giving out statistics about the self-supporting branches of its work. Elsewhere in this paper will be found a description of the lodging houses maintained by the Salvation Army.

The 1905 report says "1,300,000 meals were supplied in our cheap restaurants last year." No distinction is here made between meals paid for and those given free or worked for.

The 1904 report says that "outside employment was found for about 44,508;" the 1905 report says "14,907 found outside employment last year," while the undated leaflet says that "50,000 found outside employment during the year." Again we ask, which of these figures are correct?

Under date of April 27, 1906, the National Rescue Secretary writes: "We have twenty-one (21) Rescue Homes in the United States in which there pass yearly 2,634 girls," while Commander Miss Booth announces in "Light in Darkness" for the year ending September 30, 1905, that "The Army has 25 Rescue Homes in the United States, in which 5,730 girls were cared for last year." In the same report Commander Miss Booth refers to "four (4) maternity homes, accommodating 108." How can the statements of the National Rescue Secretary and the Commander

be harmonized? Neither of them agree with the statement on the cards attached to the contribution boxes in Philadelphia, announcing that the "Army operates in the United States, 21 homes for fallen women *and* 21 maternity homes, through which 2,635 fallen women pass yearly." It would be interesting to know to what extent the "rescue homes" of the Army have become maternity homes or lying-in hospitals. It was stated recently in the War Cry that "95 per cent. of the rescue cases are restored to virtue," though the National Rescue Secretary is a little less positive and says "we estimate that 89 per cent. turn out satisfactorily." Comment upon the alleged high per centage of "successes" is hardly necessary before an audience of experienced social workers.

These discrepancies and deficiencies in the statistics given out by the Army are typical of many more which might be mentioned, making it impossible to secure accurate information about their work.

Of all the panaceas for the cure of poverty which the Salvation Army has from time to time offered to the public, the farm colony plan has, perhaps, attracted the most favorable attention. For the past nine years the Salvation Army has been asserting that the "proper solution of the problem of poverty is to place the 'landless man' on the 'manless land.'"

The officials of the Salvation Army claim to have reached this conclusion after having made a careful study of society, in which they claim to find certain evils, such as "excessive taxation, causing owners of property to abandon it; inability of workingmen to marry and bring up a family in decency; the breaking up of the family and home because married men cannot compete with single men in the labor market; sending men to the penitentiary because they cannot find work;" and, "worst of all," to quote Booth-Tucker,' "the tendency of public and philanthropic institutions to give aid only on condition of the family being broken up and the children made over to them. The father must go to this semi-penal institution, the mother to a second and the children to the third."

Even if this indictment, which places all the responsibility for alleged existing conditions upon society and none whatever upon the individual, were true, it is difficult to see how the Salvation Army farm colonies would remedy the evils complained of. While the competition in the labor market of single men with

married men may tend to lower wages, we all know that there are many other complex causes affecting the standard of living of the working man's family. It is possible that Booth-Tucker has judged the poor in America and charitable organizations working in their behalf from the point of view of his extensive experience in the congested section of East London. Men are not sent to the penitentiary in this country because they cannot find work, property is not confiscated by excessive taxation, and the whole tendency in child-saving work in the United States is the exact opposite of that which Booth-Tucker describes.

One of the conditions of success for the farm colony laid down by the Army is that colonists must possess "industry, fair intelligence, physical capacity, energy and determination." Commander Miss Booth recently said: "In the selection of colonists, certificates of both physical and moral soundness are required." Experienced charity workers know that the men in the families requiring charitable attention usually possess characteristics the exact opposite to those enumerated here as *sine qua non* in a prospective colonist. In fact, it is the absence of the very qualities that the Army requires in its farm colonists that constitutes the chief problem of charity.

Removal of even a large number of "carefully selected" families to the country will in no wise help the deserted or widowed woman with small children, an aged couple, or a case where sickness is the cause of poverty.

I find that, somehow, most people have gained the impression that the Army has a large number of these farm colonies, and that thousands of poor people from the "slums" have been transferred to them. There are at present but three colonies, one each in Ohio, Colorado and California, having a total of but 530 people, including men, women and children. These colonists have become self-supporting, and beyond question their lot has been improved by removal from the city, but it would be interesting to know what percentage of them, while living in the city, had been recipients of either public or private relief, or even dwellers in what the Salvation Army calls the "slums." Unfortunately, the statistics which the Army presents throw absolutely no light on the important question as to how far incompetent persons can be helped by the farm colony plan. The celebrated "first colonist" at Ft. Amity had household goods and a team, and

presumably was possessed of "fair intelligence and determination." The farm colony scheme is a good thing under certain conditions but it cannot fairly be claimed that it solves the problem of poverty.

The Salvation Army maintains lodging houses in many cities, furnishing beds at the rate of ten and fifteen cents a night. In its appeals for funds the Army speaks of "lodging thousands of the homeless," and many people gain the impression that such lodgings are, in part at least, a charity, and that the accommodations furnished are much superior to those of the ordinary cheap lodging house run for private profit. In fact, the Army states as its reason for establishing lodging houses of its own that those already in existence are "unsanitary, immoral and of the meanest character." Booth-Tucker describes a night spent in one in New York City, which he calls "average," but which is so low in character as to be, fortunately, "exceptional." Comparing the Salvation Army lodging houses with such a one as he describes, they may, perhaps, be the havens of comfort, cleanliness and morality which his monograph claims them to be. But, as a matter of fact, reliable information from a large number of typical American cities indicates that the system of cheap lodging houses conducted by the Army have all the defects of the poorest of the privately owned lodging houses and few, if any, advantages over them. It is significant that recently in an Eastern city, a Salvation Army lodging house was closed when the local Board of Health began to enforce the sanitary ordinances, while from widely separated cities come accounts of specific glaring evils. A middle west city reports, "The Salvation Army lodging house as conducted in this city is one of the worst we ever saw. A committee of our Board investigated and found the condition indescribably bad." An experienced charity worker writes from an eastern city: "The Salvation Army lodging houses in this city are purely commercial enterprises, and, if anything, are of a lower grade than other lodging houses avowedly commercial and charging no more for beds. There is no effort made to do anything more than to lodge the men and take their money in return." A discriminating and experienced observer in a New England city writes: "The Salvation Army lodging houses are of no assistance in dealing with homeless men and boys, but by gathering them together they increase the tramp problem and add to the burden of the chari-

ties of the city." A veteran charity worker in another city expresses the belief that Salvation Army lodging houses "congregate a miserable class of vagrants and perpetuate a wretched mode of existence and a low standard of living." These are typical of a large number of similar reports received from widely separated cities.

In some cities, in an effort to compete with the private lodging houses, the Army offers its guests free breakfasts of coffee and rolls and the resulting increase in patronage by the lowest grade of homeless men doubtless pays the Army well for this cheap premium on shiftlessness and beggary.

Why does the Army maintain this vast system of lodging houses? Privately owned lodging houses in the same neighborhoods, paying the same rentals, having the same or greater cost of maintenance, better furnished, just as sanitary, and charging the same rate, are known to pay good dividends. Why does the Army tacitly represent their lodging houses as a charity? They do not exert any moral influence over the men in their lodging houses, and they can certainly do religious work as well or better among those who live in privately owned lodgings.

The Salvation Army Industrial Homes Company to which reference has already been made, owns and operates all of the Salvation Army Industrial Homes in North America. It appears to be rather difficult to find out just who constitute the real Board of Directors of the Salvation Army Industrial Homes Company, but it is probable that at least some of those who are active in promoting the work of the corporation are personally interested in its successful operation by virtue of the fact that they hold preferred stock in the corporation.

This Industrial Homes Company carries on a large business in the collection of paper waste and the materials used in the manufacture of paper and what is commonly known as junk. It also operates the second-hand clothing and furniture stores of the Army. This corporation induces the public to give old magazines, furniture, rags, metals and second-hand clothing to them free of charge. This waste material is collected, sorted, cleaned and gotten ready for the market by "out-of-works" of various kinds. In connection with the Industrial Homes a lodging house is usually maintained, in which the men are boarded and lodged. In addition to this they are clothed and receive from fifty cents to

one dollar per week in cash for their work. By the sale of the material donated by the public these Industrial Homes are fully self-supporting and pay six per cent. interest to the stockholders. Since private individuals and corporations are able to make a good profit by dealing in salvage material and old junk of various kinds for which they pay the householders, it is not surprising that the Army Industrial Homes which secure the material free of cost and sell it at the market price are able to be more than self-supporting. There are scattering complaints that this company has monopolized the salvage business in some cities, driving out private dealers, who are thus deprived of a livelihood. It is said that the activity of the Industrial Homes Company has made it difficult in some cities for the local charities to secure second-hand clothing and furniture for the poor.

While these Industrial Homes are undoubtedly helpful in some cases, it must be remembered that the men and boys whom the Army classes as "out-of-works" represent many different types. In many instances the problem which they present cannot be solved by providing temporary employment. Individual treatment carefully suited to their varying needs is necessary. To accomplish lasting results the co-operation of many helpful agencies must be sought out and used. This requires time and patience, and quiet, persistent effort, rather than the wholesale methods of a quasi-charitable stock company.

There is reason to believe that the following cases are typical of many which pass through the industrial homes without having their real needs discovered and met:

An old man, apparently without means of support, found by the Army in a basement, was transferred to their lodging house. Here he was kept for about a month, no effort being made in the meantime to locate his relatives and restore him to his friends. Instead, the City Poor Department was asked to place the man in the local poor-house. It happened that just about the time the Army took this man to their lodging house the local charity organization society was asked to look into the case, with the result that they located his three sons, who were living in widely separated cities, and secured from them pledges to support their father during the remainder of his life. Under these conditions the old man's brother, living on a small farm in New Hampshire, offered to give him a permanent home, and the City Poor Department gladly co-operated by providing transportation. It

should be added that the charity society turned over to the Army ten dollars received from the old man's sons to pay for his care pending the final arrangements.

Another case was that of a young consumptive staying at the Army's lodging house and working in the industrial department. He had been known to the Army for several months, but, although entirely out of funds and not really strong enough to work, nothing had been done for him. No precautions were taken to prevent infection and the man must have constantly endangered others. When referred to the Associated Charities he was at once placed under the care of a physician and provided with sanitary spittoons for use at the lodging house and instructed how to prevent giving his disease to others. Then, through the charity organization of an eastern city, the man's relatives, from whom he had been estranged, were located and induced to send sufficient money to pay for his transportation to his old home where they agreed to care for him.

Few branches of the Army's relief work have been given such wide publicity as their free Christmas dinners. The Army began the systematic giving and advertising of free Christmas dinners in 1898. The method then followed was to issue a general invitation to the poor to come to the public dinners in the Army's halls. While a considerable number of homeless persons living in cheap lodgings accepted the invitation, the Army officers noted with regret that families were not largely represented. Experienced charity workers know that this was mainly due to the fact that they were otherwise provided for. For years our Christian churches have, directly or through numerous auxiliary agencies, made special efforts to see that the needy, irrespective of church connection, received gifts at Christmas time. Their work and that of the host of benevolent individuals in co-operation with local charity organization societies made the wholesale methods of the Army quite uncalled for so far as families are concerned. But the Army took a different view of the matter and began in 1899 to secure lists of names of poor families. To these free basket-dinners were offered, to be called for and carried home by the recipients. That this plan brought about the desired increase is shown by the fact that the Army reports 500,000 Christmas dinners given to the poor in 1905 — a gain of 100,000 a year since 1901. The tone of articles in the War Cry, published after this high-water mark was reached, is primarily one of exultation over the vast number fed by the Army. But to the minds of many

experienced charitable workers the value and necessity for the Army's extensive Christmas dinner work is more than doubtful.

While it is quite natural that the army should wish to give free Christmas dinners to those who are guests in their various hotels and lodging houses and to the inmates of their industrial homes, we cannot approve of the tendency to make such dinners public spectacles. At the big free dinner given by the Army at the Grand Central Palace in New York City last Christmas, the boxes and balconies were thronged, according to the War Cry, with well-dressed men and women who had come out to see what a Salvation Army dinner was like. Does not this come dangerously near to exploiting the poor for the sake of advertising the Army?

One serious criticism of the Army's method of giving Christmas dinners to families in their homes is the fact that they do not co-operate with other organizations and much duplication results.

In Minneapolis last December an arrangement was made by which all of the needy families known to the City Poor Department and to the Associated Charities as likely to be proper cases for free Christmas dinners, were to be cared for in co-operation with local churches, societies and benevolent individuals without any appeal to the general public. A simple checking-up plan was devised which enabled each particular agency to do its part without duplication or interfering with the work of any other. Although the Army was well advised of this arrangement, they nevertheless put their collectors on the streets and announced that they would give more Christmas dinners in Mineapolis than they had given in any previous year. As they declined to check up their lists a larger number of duplications resulted and much money was spent for Christmas dinners which might have been more helpful to the families if used in other ways.

The pauperization of the poor and the introduction of the commercial and competitive spirit into Christmas charity as a result of the Army's methods might be dwelt upon if space permitted. One other matter should, however, be mentioned.

The Army has given the public the impression that the money contributed to the Christmas dinner fund is used exclusively for that purpose and for the direct relief of the poor during the winter. However, the 1904 statement of the Christmas and relief fund in a typical city shows that about $1,000 out of $2,000 re-

ceived was expended for such items as printing, stationery, postage, express charges and maintenance of departments.

There is a feeling on the part of many people that the Army is peculiarly fitted for work among the poor, and that, moreover, it reaches a class that no other church or charity reaches. There is psychological reason for this. For years in every appeal for funds made by the Army's collectors the money has been asked for on the ground of the Army's relief work. The same is true of all its written and printed appeals for money. The religious side of their work is never insisted upon — is rarely even mentioned.

"Our officers live among the poor; we know best who the needy ones are; we have no red tape; we help the vicious and the low; we feed the starving; we clothe the naked; we lodge the homeless; we care for the outcast; we alone know and help these people," is the burden of every appeal until gradually the business man comes honestly to believe that "the Army is in a class by itself," and that its work is necessarily good.

The newspapers have done much to foster this idea, for the Army is a past master at the art of advertising and frequently publishes its cases. Names and addresses are sometimes given in full, thus increasing the tendency to destroy the self-respect of the families.

A few concrete examples may be of value as illustrations of what the Army does and does not do in dealing with needy families in their homes and also in showing how persistently they exploit the unfortunate for the sake of advertising their organization and securing funds:

In one city a morning paper published the following, under the heading "Salvation Army caring for C——— and his wife." The article told of the sickness of the wife and of a series of misfortunes of which a recent accident to the man was the climax. It concluded by saying: "The condition of the couple was reported to the Salvation Army and a doctor was immediately sent out by them to administer to their needs. Provisions are being supplied daily and a girl has been sent out by their employment department to take care of the couple until Mr. C——— is sufficiently recovered to return to work." It happened that the local charity organization society was already acquainted with this case and it continued in close touch with the couple for the three months following, during which period, after a great

amount of work, the family was finally made self-supporting. We are, therefore, able to say without question that after giving supplies once, when the couple still had money and credit, and after having duly exploited the family by name in the newspapers, the Army made no further calls, gave no further help and never made any attempt to follow up the case and see that medical and other assistance was furnished. In this case as in scores of similar ones, the public is confident that the Salvation Army promptly did the necessary adequate things and knows nothing of the patient efforts which finally placed the family beyond the need of relief.

In another instance a newspaper, under the heading: "Woman Cut Off Toes with Knife — Was Without Money to Pay Surgeon — Tragedy Revealed to Officers of Salvation Army — Husband Ill — Maimed Wife and Mother Forced to Support Two Small Children," printed one of the most lurid and extravagant "human interest" stories ever given out by the Salvation Army. It described how this woman, living on a farm, had frozen her feet and later had herself attempted to amputate the toes on one foot. Finding that it did not get well the woman had come to the city and had secured work through the Army's employment agency to earn money to pay for medical attention. The article concluded with the statement that the Salvation Army had taken prompt action to relieve the suffering woman and that they would provide for the sick husband and the children living at ————, and that the woman had been placed in the hospital. The reporter who wrote the story said that he had taken down the statements just as they were given to him by the Army. The publication of this story caused a number of persons to send in funds for the Army's Relief Department, stating that they were glad to know that the Army did such noble work, etc. Three days later an investigation was made of the case by the local charity organization society and it was found that the Salvation Army had in fact done nothing for the woman. She had not been sent to the hospital and had not received any medical attention, and was still trying to work. When the case was placed in charge of a visiting nurse it was found that the woman's foot was in a serious condition and that blood poisoning had set in. No assistance had been given to the husband and children, nor had their condition been ascertained by the Army. Without going into details, it may be said that the charity organization society enlisted the services of a hospital, a surgeon, the commissioners of the county in which the family lived, and a benevolent individual, with the result that the woman recovered from her injuries and was returned to her home, while the husband and children, whose needs had been greatly exaggerated, received aid from local sources until the man was able to return to work.

Here again the Salvation Army exploited a case and profited thereby, although a woman in sore need of help was neglected and the real work in the case was done by quite another organization.

Of quite a different character is the following case, which, nevertheless, shows similar defects in treatment:

A boy of twelve, an only child, ran away from a good home in Chicago and finally wandered into a Salvation Army lodging house in that city. A fellow-lodger became interested in the boy and after learning something of his story reported the matter to the Bureau of Charities. Its agent, upon going to the lodging house to secure the lad, found that members of the Salvation Army had accpted without investigation the boy's own statement that he was an orphan and had placed the child for *adoption* within two miles of his own home. The parents were easily located through the police, to whom they had reported the disappearance of the lad, but it was a far harder matter to find the boy, who had run away from his foster home and was again lost in the city. In all probability this case has been counted in the Army's statistics of "homeless children rescued."

It may be objected by some that the cases cited are not average or typical of the Army's work, but they have been selected from a large number of similar ones. While admitting that in some instances they do better work, it is unfortunately true that altogether too many cases are treated in this superficial and inefficient manner.

It is exceedingly difficult to secure satisfactory information about the financial affairs of the Salvation Army. The International Headquarters are in London, and one might reasonably expect some light from that quarter. In 1901 Mr. W. T. Stead, the London editor, was authority for the statement that the members of the Army in England "raise every year a million sterling, the equivalent to four per cent. interest on a capital of twenty million pounds." From a correspondent in London, who has had unusual opportunities to know the work of the Salvation Army, we have the following statement: "I have not been able to obtain any published financial statement of the work of the Salvation Army as a whole. The accounts published relate only to the business of International Headquarters, and no account is rendered of local contributions in England. At International Headquarters the Army is a vast commercial enterprise, consist-

ing of a group of companies, including a bank, a life assurance society, etc. It would be no surprise to me if a great financial crash should happen any day."

General Booth is not only sole and absolute head of the Salvation Army, but he is also "Director of the Social Scheme" now being operated in almost all parts of the world. All members of the Salvation Army are required to sign the "Articles of War," taking among others the following pledges: "I do hereby declare my full determination, by God's help, to be a true soldier of the Army till I die. I do declare that I will always obey the lawful orders of my officers and that I will carry out to the utmost of my power all Orders and Regulations of the Army." Since General Booth himself makes all "Orders and Regulations" it may be seen that he has unlimited power in financial matters. In England, General Booth holds all property and funds of the Salvation Army "in trust." It is understood that he has deposited with the London solicitors of the Salvation Army his will, naming his successor and conveying to him to be held "in trust" all of the property and funds of the Army. In view of this situation one is reminded again of the question which Prof. Huxley asked in 1891, and to which a satisfactory reply has never been made: "Will General Booth submit to competent and impartial legal scrutiny the arrangements by which he and his successors are prevented from dealing with the funds of the so-called 'Army Chest' exactly as he or they may please?"

In the United States the National Board of Trustees of the Salvation Army consists of five paid officers of the Army, namely, the commander, the general secretary, the treasurer, the lieutenant-colonel and the legal secretary. This Board, while directing all the activities of the Salvation Army in the United States and having entire charge of all its property and funds in this country, is itself subordinate to General Booth of London. It is to be noted that those who contribute funds to the Army have absolutely no representation, either in its financial management or in establishing its policy in regard to any phase of its work.

The Army has no local boards of management apart from its own paid officers who receive and disburse all funds. A traveling auditor, himself a member and officer of the Salvation Army, inspects from time to time the books and accounts of the various departments in each Army province. We have not been

able to learn that these provincial books or accounts are ever regularly inspected by any authorized persons other than officers of the Salvation Army who are in its paid service. The balance sheet and statement of accounts at National Headquarters in New York City are gone over each year by a certified public accountant, but this only guarantees that the entries, postings, footings, and balances are correct, and that there are vouchers covering all expenditures.

The public accountant does not and cannot certify to the capacity, economy, and skill with which the funds of the Army are expended, neither does he have any voice in deciding when, where and how funds intrusted to the Army shall be used. In the United States that power rests absolutely with the chief paid officers of the Army under the supervision of General Booth and his daughter, Commander Miss Booth, who is President of the National Board of Trustees. The method of auditing and the system of accounts now in use by the Salvation Army does not enable contributors to know the precise sources of the Army's income, neither do the financial statements clearly show whether or not the money is expended in the exact way that the contributors, by direct statement and by implication, have been led to believe it was to be expended.

The provincial accounts are seriously at fault in failing to show total receipts and total expenditures for all funds and all departments for each particular city. Again, some of the departments of the Army are partially, and others wholly, self-supporting, while some are a source of income, yet the annual statements do not make clear the financial relation between these departments and those supported wholly by cash contributions.

The Army is accustomed to defend its financial reports and balance sheets by saying that they are "issued in accordance with law," and that a "detailed statement of every branch of its work is filed with the Secretary of State of New York." As a matter of fact the information filed at Albany, N. Y., by the Army, is very incomplete and vague and, in violation of the law of its incorporation, no report whatever was filed for its fiscal year ending September 30th, 1903. From reports filed by the Army for the fiscal years ending in 1904 and 1905 we find that a "detailed statement of every branch of its work," is exactly what is *not* given. Absolutely no reference is made in the documents filed with the

Secretary of State of New York to such important funds and accounts of the Army as, General Fund, Harvest Festival Account, National, Social and Relief Fund, Self-Denial Fund, Christmas Dinner and Special Winter Relief Account, etc. Again the special law passed by the New York Legislature to enable the Salvation Army to incorporate and to be exempted from taxation, requires the Army to present an annual "inventory of its property in the United States wherever situated, naming the amount and kind thereof in each state." Instead of making an inventory the lump sum valuation of the real property is given for the several states and the personal property valuation is simply given in a lump sum for the whole United States. The Farm Colonies are mentioned as three in number, but no statement of any kind is made as to their value and income and expenditures. Under the plea that they are separately organized and incorporated no figures whatever are given in regard to "the Trade Department and the Industrial Homes." In addition to the financial statements about the real and personal property of the Army noted above, the only other items filed with the Secretary of State of New York, are lump sum statements of income and expenditures for the Rescue Homes, Children's Homes and Shelter or Lodging Houses. The statements do not even show the balances or deficits in the accounts for the previous year, thus it is impossible to compare the statements or to check them up.

It is common for officials of the Salvation Army when asked for clear and complete statements about their financial affairs, to refer to the Annual Statements issued by the National Headquarters of the Army and sworn to by a public accountant of New York City. In this connection it is of interest to note the following comments made by an expert on charitable accountancy who has recently made an examination of these Annual Statements. He says, "In summing up it may be said that the Annual Statements do not show with any distinctness the amount of money received or expended for the different works of the Salvation Army, nor even the sum total of all receipts or of all expenditures for all purposes; nor does this seem to be the purpose of the Statement, which appears rather to be to present to the public the financial status of the Army. With the exception of balance sheets the 'Statements' have scarcely any practical value to the public, mingling items of assets and liabilities with those of expenditure

and income." Even if these Annual Statements of National Headquarters were clear they do not deal with any funds except those received at and expended through the National Headquarters and we would still be without an accounting for the large sums of money handled by the local and provincial corps, with whose books the public accountant of New York is certainly not familiar.

The business affairs of the Salvation Army are rapidly attaining large proportions and those who give financial support to the organization certainly have a right to expect clearer financial statements.

The limits of this paper do not permit a discussion of all departments of the Army work here, and we have, therefore, selected those which the Salvation Army officials themselves seem to regard as most important.

In conclusion, it may be said that while the rank and file of the Army are self-sacrificing and devoted to the cause in which they have enlisted, a careful study of their charitable activities leads one to the conviction that the very form of organization of the Army is unsuited to the development of effective social and relief work in a democracy. Their unwillingness to co-operate with local charitable agencies, the entire lack of local boards, the levying of enormous annual contributions without permitting the donors any voice in the expenditure of the funds, the strict military form of government, preventing even the "soldiers" of the Army from having any part in its management — all these defects and many others which might be mentioned seem to us to make the Salvation Army un-American and ill adapted to carry out progressive and rational measures of social relief.*

* Discussion on Relief Work of Salvation Army, p. 503.

XI.

Neighborhood Work.*

HOUSING CONDITIONS IN PHILADELPHIA.

BY THE OCTAVIA HILL ASSOCIATION OF PHILADELPHIA.

The subject may be of interest to citizens of the older cities, which grew up before America had awakened to civic pride, in the days when the new settlers were rejoicing in freedom from monarchical restraint, days of which we are now reaping both the benefits and the burdens in full measure; and to citizens of the newer towns where thought for the present and the future are combining to build cities which shall be known not only for their commercial prosperity but for beauty and healthful regulations, which induce to happiness and vigor.

In Philadelphia is found a minimum number of large buildings constructed for tenement use. This is largely due to the excellent tenement house act passed by the legislature of Pennsylvania in 1895 for cities of the first class.† At that date, which marked a period of increased immigration, the tenement house threatened to invade the so-called "city of homes." These tenements were erected, chiefly by foreigners who demanded large returns on their investments, and amongst such buildings not one is known where any humanizing features were presented. The law of 1895 was passed by the legislature without difficulty and made tenement buildings so expensive as to be practically prohibitive. By the requirements of this act such buildings, if over four stories in height should be fire proof throughout, with the exception of flooring and sleepers or beams, and if built upon *one* street only should have an open space equal to 20 per cent. of the area of the lot. The act further made it difficult to erect upon a lot of the usual size obtainable, a tenement which should comply with all its requirements. Previous to its passage, no records were kept by the Bureau of Building Inspection of the tenements built; they came under the law controlling the ordin-

* Discussion on Housing, Etc., p. 580.

† See Appendix A, p. 608.

ary dwelling house. In the ten years since the law's passage, only 21 permits for such houses have been issued, this number including housekeeping apartments for the well-to-do, as well as those for the poor. While the tenement house evil does not exist in the form of large caravansaries in a degree to require any comment, it does exist in a far reaching and subtle way in the former private houses altered for tenement use. These will be spoken of later.

At first it would seem best to look at the brighter and at the same time the more influential side of housing in Philadelphia, namely, the small house. The extraordinary growth of this type of dwelling has been fostered by the topographical conditions of the city, by the Building and Loan Associations and by the prompt response from the business interests of the landowner, the builder and the capitalist to an increasing demand.

The need for the individual home is said to be rooted in the earliest traditions of the city. Some authorities place its origin in the system of ground rents established by William Penn. These tenures differed from ground leases and mortgages in that they involved a permanent lien upon the land, which could not be redeemed and thus they made easy the obtaining and improving of small individual holdings. Later, as the city grew and land values increased, the Building and Loan Associations claim that they enabled Philadelphia to maintain this tradition and to pursue her development along this line. The first of these associations in the United States was organized in Frankfort, which is now a part of Philadelphia, in 1831. In 1903, the total assets of the Building and Loan Associations for the United States amounted to nearly $600,000,000. In 1904, the assets of the 565 Associations of Philadelphia were $53,000,000. The receipts in proportion to these assets, represent a large sum which is free each year for the primary purpose, according to the principles of these societies, of making loans to members in order that they may build or purchase homes. These facts make it evident that they have exerted both directly and indirectly a strong influence on building operations. It is calculated by one of the leaders of the movement, that over 75,000 houses have been bought in Philadelphia in this way.

The plan of these associations is doubtless well known. Its simplicity, its local and neighborhood features, the restriction of

loans to members only, the volunteer services of its officers, salaries even when paid being merely nominal, all tend to strengthen their hold upon the wage earning class, until they have become not only here but in many cities, our most remarkable example of co-operative business enterprise. In Philadelphia in 1904, their shareholders numbered 120,000. In competition with these Associations both banks and trust companies will loan money on equally advantageous terms, but as they cannot offer the same personal, friendly relation to the borrower which his own Association gives, nor the advantage which a stockholder has from profit on his stock in an Association, they have not really vied in their hold upon the working classes.

The different grades of houses which find purchasers among the working classes, probably range in rent from $8 to $25 a month. In the older parts of the city and in the mill and factory districts, there are many streets of small four or five room houses renting for from $8 to $12 a month. These show in its simplest form a plan of construction which in its further development in the newer dwellings is very complete. Its two chief characteristics are, that each room shall open directly to the outer air and that each room shall have its separate entrance. At first this house has two rooms on each floor with a small stairway in the centre. Then in its next stage a passage way to the stairs is taken off the front room and a kitchen forming an ell to the house is added. Next we find an extension for a bathroom on the second floor and then in its later stage the ell is extended, making the house four rooms deep on each floor and yet keeping the two vital characteristics of light and privacy. In its cheapest form, the house offers few conveniences. A hydrant in the yard or a sink in the kitchen and a yard closet often over a privy vault are all it gives. For $12 and $14 a month a bath room and range may be had. As the rent increases and the house appears in newer neighborhoods, it gains many additions. A porch front, a bay window, gas fixtures, range and stationary wash tubs sometimes in a small scullery back of the kitchen, cemented cellar and furnace, bath room and sink, it becomes a model of careful, intelligent design. Such a house as this latter can be rented for from $18 to $20 a month or can be bought for from $2,400 to $2,700 on easy terms. Compare these rents with those in the central districts in tenements large and small. There two poor

rooms cannot be found for less than $6, and if rooms are of better grade they will bring $9 a month. With these figures before us, remember that in tenements are sacrificed not only privacy, the lack of which makes difficult the development of individuality, but also the freedom, the sunlight and the pure air which tend to the vigor and health so essential to prosperity. Where an increase of rent indicates increased home comforts it is usual to find an increase of ambition and a demand for steady work and stable wages.

Without question it is the individual house which all classes and all nationalities desire in time. Although the foreigner is at first fully satisfied with rooms, as soon as he becomes Americanized he is dissatisfied with such quarters and asks for a home. It is true that he will probably want to overcrowd his rooms, and in a private house that cannot be regulated, but if the house is small and has ventilation, the evil is not a very grave one. Young people married from a tenement almost always want a house of their own to settle in. They move away, often with longing looks back to the center of activity where amusements and sociability are more easily obtained, but the desire for the home prevails and they go further and further from the influx of immigration, where the home was found on first arriving in this country and from which the parents had not the initiative to move. Clannishness is especially the case with Italians and Russians, the former really preferring tenement life, but Buffalo and Baltimore throw cheering light on the revolt of the eastern nations by showing in the former a population of 70,000 Poles in small houses and in the latter a prosperous Bohemian settlement, living in two story dwellings.

The Building and Loan Associations were among the earliest factors to foster the building of small houses in Philadelphia, but a natural growth is now carried on by the business enterprise, which seeks to make profitable the tracts of land adjacent to the city which have become unprofitable as farms owing to the increase of taxation. Large areas are bought by capitalists who with the builder erect, on a mortgage system, rows of houses similar to the types above described. Minor streets thirty to forty feet in width may be opened through blocks with the approval of councils, and lots made of a marketable size — there is no stereotyped size lot, and houses are sometimes erected with no

more open space than the law requires, which is 144 square feet. No house can be built less than 14 feet wide, and the new minor streets may not be less than 30 feet in width and are usually 40 feet. There are in the built up section but very few dwellings of the smaller type with yard gardens around them, and it is partly this which decreases the rentals. These gardens are suited to the suburbs, and where wooden buildings are permitted.

If we are to encourage the workman to own houses, we should be able to give him reasonable assurance that the houses he buys are well built and that the city has protected his interests by good building laws and by their enforcement. Our laws are good and are increasing yearly in stringency. The possibility of bad work comes, not from defects in the laws, but through insufficient inspection; with such large operations in all sections of the city, much goes forward uninspected. If inspections were necessary at stated periods there would be more reason to be satisfied with the quality of what is done. A bit of poor work may be hidden before the city official sees it. For this reason some of the business firms lending capital, employ inspectors of their own.

To anyone entering Philadelphia by railroad, the city is impressively unpicturesque with her miles of streets built up with small red brick houses. These houses mark her peculiarity in the question of housing, and they grow in popularity at a rate out of proportion with the growth of the city. Of her 288,706 dwellings, spreading over 130 square miles of area, more than half are two story houses. In the year 1905, 8,243 of these were erected, affording comfortable accommodations for nearly forty thousand persons. This is the largest number on record for any year since 1887, which is the period for which statistics are available. The average number built per year during that period is 4,856, and at the same time there has been a gradual decrease in the numbers of three story houses erected. In 1890 the average number of persons to a house was 5.6; in 1900 this had decreased to 5.4 persons, showing that the building of houses is slightly outstripping the increase in population. It is interesting to see the contrary tendency illustrated in Chicago. During the year 1905 the plans approved by its Bureau of Health for tenements, flats and apartments numbered 3,254.

Comparing the United States statistics for Indianapolis,

Cleveland, St. Louis, Buffalo, Chicago, Boston, Baltimore and Philadelphia, cities selected as presenting similarities of possibilities sufficient to justify a comparison, we find that in every city except Philadelphia and Baltimore one-family houses have decreased in number in proportion to the total of dwellings erected. In these two cities they have increased; in Baltimore from 83.6 to 85.7; in Philadelphia, from 92.8 to 93.1.*

When we endeavor to test the prevalent idea that in Philadelphia more workmen own their houses than in other cities, it is impossible to prove or to disprove it, but one table of the United States census would lead us to think it improbable. In it is given the proportion of families owning their homes in 37 cities, beginning with Los Angeles where 44 per cent. of the houses are so owned, and ending with Fall River, which shows a percentage of 18. In this list, Philadelphia stands the thirtieth with a percentage of only 22.1. While many make better showing numerically, there are other considerations which may offset this This table does not consider those who while renting the houses they live in, may yet own other small houses as investments. These form a large class. In some of the cities listed many of the homes are poorly built frame dwellings. Moreover, there is no table showing the size or rental of houses, and it is not possible to distinguish what proportion should be credited to the wage earner. In a city, however, containing 155,170 two-story houses and a population of nearly a million and a half it is evident that such houses meet the needs of a large percentage of her working people.

In the newer sections of the city, Philadelphians are unquestionably well housed and in sanitary environments. In the older sections, however, are met the bad conditions of surface drainage and privy vaults, with the consequent pools of surface water and the bad smells which in summer and winter alike are so horrible. Both of these conditions exist in streets where sewers have been laid for years. If new plumbing is installed it must be connected to sewers, but privy vaults are allowed to be cleaned out and their use continued. These wells are from 12 to 18 feet deep, and are used for several compartments. Often they are built so as to serve for more than one property, and consequently

* See Appendix, p. 610, for detailed report on per cent. of one family houses.

the co-operation necessary for having them emptied is lacking and foul conditions arise and persist. The walls of these wells are built of brick or cement and frequently leak, contaminating the soil for years.

In the older districts some blocks are intersected with a net work of alleys from 10 to 15 feet in width. On these no houses of the newer construction are found, but they contain a peculiar type of three room house which is always in demand by those unable to pay more than $8.00 a month. These little houses are built on the rear of lots whose frontage is on a main street and bring into use spaces too small for any other form of construction. They are three stories in height with one room on each floor. A winding stair case so opens into both the first and second floors as to preclude all privacy. If such houses are built with an enclosed stairway, a shed kitchen and the legal yard space of 144 square feet, they serve a good purpose, and where there is air, they are better than a tenement dwelling.

Philadelphia conditions would not be fully described without alluding to the small houses often found on the back of a main house, corresponding to its back building. These are usually three in number of the above band box type. They have no yard except the common space in front of them, which is perhaps six feet wide; their only water supply is one hydrant, and the toilet accommodations are in a group at the end of the open space. Access to such houses is by passage from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet in width, which is frequently overhung by the second story of the main dwelling. Such houses are found in the older sections and usually rent for $6.00 a month. They may afford comfortable homes, but too often neglect has made them miserable and unsanitary. With closets over the privy vaults, with a high building or an ash and refuse-filled open lot as adjoining neighbor, such courts, where through ventilation is impossible, often become a nuisance. They are apt to accommodate a bad class of tenants for their seclusion protects them from supervision by citizens or policemen. These houses cannot be eliminated, although building laws prevent more from being constructed. We should not lose sight of them, but should subject them to ordinances which would make living in them sanitary.

From these conditions, which are partly local, we are led to the universally perplexing nuisance of private houses, which

now by the changes of the distribution of population are found in and near the business districts. Unsuited for business purposes and equally unsuited for tenements, too good to destroy and too bad to reconstruct, these houses are soon tenanted by those seeking accommodations near their work. One room seems to these tenants too large for only a sleeping room, and it is usually made to serve for living in all its branches. Many immigrants with the old world standards ask for nothing better. The crowding, the dirt, the limited water supply are no new propositions to them. They ask for nothing better, and why should a landlord give them more than is demanded? House after house in the older wards is so appropriated, and the conditions become worse when these old buildings are used for sub-letting in furnished rooms to the most shiftless of all classes of tenants. The landlord prospers consciously, his property deteriorates but he gets a large return. The tenant suffers unknowingly, losing in ambition, in moral tone and in health, while the city pays with easy indifference the additional cost entailed by the increase of population in the hospitals and the almshouse.

What does this mean in the development of the city? These houses are legally tenements and should be subject to the law governing tenement houses, which would enforce increase of toilets and of water supply and the erection of fire escapes as well as minor requirements in regard to light and air. While we have laws regulating the *construction* of tenements, we have none that in practice forces the re-constructor of an old house to report to the Bureau of Building Inspection. We have but one law which affects these, and that requires a fire escape on every building in which rooms or floors are usually let to lodgers or families. The houses we are describing are converted into tenements without obtaining a permit of any kind, and who is to report that they are so altered to the authorities? They bear no external evidence of the changes. A few years ago after a serious fire, a very general inspection of the most crowded districts was made, and very many fire escapes were ordered to be erected. In all save a few cases, the matter ended there.

Philadelphia shares this type of house with almost every older city and the problem must be met by legislative action. At the last Pennsylvania Legislature, the Octavia Hill Association presented but failed to secure the passage of a bill requiring that

every house which was technically a tenement, that is, one housing three or more families, living independently of each other and doing their cooking on the premises, shall be inspected quarterly by the Bureau of Health, which shall report to the Bureau of Building Inspection in cases where the requirements of this Bureau are not fulfilled. To bring this about every tenement shall be registered and licensed, paying an annual fee of $2.00 or $5.00, according to its size. This registration and inspection should assist in keeping the assessors' lists in bounds, and if there is any addition to the number of inspectors needed the salaries might be met by the license fees. The bill further regulates the light, drainage, water supply and toilet accommodations, based on the tenement house law of 1895. Every room is required to open on the outer air, and the minimum toilet and water supply is one for every three families in houses where apartments are of one or two rooms, water being required on every floor, to the height that the city pressure will permit.

From this survey of Philadelphia, is it not possible to gain some ideas which will tend to encourage the building of small houses elsewhere? May we not see that unless geographical conditions limit a city's territorial growth, small houses are profitable building enterprises and that under healthful influences the demand for them grows until they become almost universally desired. That they are probably the most satisfactory and tangible investments for a working man's savings and that as such they foster the conservative, contented and law-abiding spirit of a community.

May not Philadelphia, as an older city which is reaping the fruits of her past thoughtlessness and neglect, urge upon newer communities the need of safeguarding their futures? Many evils have grown up, from the cupidity of landlords and the unwillingness of the municipality to exercise her rightful powers of regulation and control, that cannot now be done away without injustice somewhere or to someone. May this imperfect study not point out the strongly directing influence which may be exerted by wise legislation. Philadelphia has been saved from a tenement house problem by an opportune tenement house law. Surely such a law should be enacted in other cities, and should be supplemented by legislation regulating all dwellings where a number of families live, as well as all courts and alleys in the

older and congested districts. Intelligent, trained inspectors are a municipality's strongest instruments for educating the community and for enforcing its laws. Our final word is a plea that in both the building and sanitary departments of each municipality the number of such inspectors should be increased and the standard of their efficiency raised.

SUMMARY EVICTIONS FROM TENEMENTS.

BY FREDERIC ALMY, GENERAL SECRETARY, CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, BUFFALO.

The chairman of the committee on neighborhood work has been living in San Francisco. Whether she still has a home in that stricken city, I do not know, but in the three weeks which have passed since its fall the word neighbor has broadened. The whole world has stood neighbor to San Francisco, and has shown again that the brotherhood of man is no mere phrase. Dr. Devine could testify as chairman of the relief bureau, that neighborhood work has now a national as well as a civic meaning. May I add without offence that summary eviction from tenements has also been illustrated. The tenement quarters of San Francisco have been swept off the map, to make way, we hope, for better homes.

Sometimes to discouraged social workers it seems as if nothing less than an earthquake could solve the problems of the tenements. The cities of the second magnitude, like Buffalo, which are still below the half million mark, have their opportunity to deal with this evil before it becomes established. There is enough to do but not so much to undo. In Buffalo the Tenement House Committee of the C. O. S. was organized 24 years ago, and an especially vigorous report of the committee in 1892, finally brought about local ordinances in 1894, which were very nearly as good as the state law passed seven years later for New York and Buffalo.

The value of these ordinances and of the state law is chiefly preventive. Under the tenement law of 1901, all *new* houses built for more than two families must reach a high standard or be subject to heavy penalties. If a three family house built since

1901 has not a proper certificate from the city authorities that it conforms in all respects to the tenement house law, the tenants cannot be compelled to pay rent and cannot be evicted for not paying it; the city is not allowed to supply water, and any mortgage on the property is immediately foreclosable. Furthermore, as if more were necessary, "said premises shall be deemed unfit for human habitation, and the tenement house department shall cause them to be vacated accordingly."

This is section 123 of the New York State Tenement House Act. The Buffalo Tenement Committee used this section with success in 1902-3 in the case of two old hotels which had been made over into tenements for forty and seventy families respectively. Legal proceedings were under way, but these are slow and unsatisfactory. Eviction had been threatened, but it was midwinter, and the public opinion of the city would not stand for it. All the newspapers favored the tenement house law, but denounced winter evictions as inhuman. At the last moment the committee gave way, and instead of eviction resorted to section 123. The owner had already been brought before the grand jury where he was liable to a fine of $250 besides $10 a day additional until his building conformed to the law. When he learned from the society that he could neither collect rent from the tenants nor evict them, he threw up the sponge. In both buildings the tenants remained without paying rent until spring, when one building was made over in accordance with the law and the other was changed into a factory. The provisions of the law were well advertised, and a difficult situation in regard to eviction was solved.

The tenants found the solution especially satisfactory.

The society does not now attempt evictions in winter, but since 1904 has had an active season of six months each summer with a paid agent.

In 1904, 17 houses with 118 families were vacated on complaint of this society, and 12 houses, with 123 families, were thoroughly improved without being vacated. In 1905, only 7 houses, with 47 families, were vacated, but 60 others, with 446 families, were improved, while 41 more with 250 families were given time under promise of repairs. The mere threat to vacate, which had formerly been a bogey, scaring nobody, had become so real a thing that actual vacation was less often necessary.

The following chronicle, copied from the city record of one tenement house shows how perfunctory and idle the city notices had become:

No. 122 Erie St., April 1st, 1897. Forty-eight hours' notice sent.

July 18, 1897. Same.

August 9, 1900. Inspected; condition found unchanged.

November 12, 1900. Notices posted and mailed; owner promised to call in a few days.

April 8, 1901. Notices posted and mailed.

March 6, 1902. Reinspected; nothing done.

August 7, 1902. Cited to appear and was given to September, 1902, to comply with the law; time further extended to November 1st.

December 26, 1902. Owner cited to appear, nothing having been done; promised to start plumbing January 15th.

February 3, 1903. Premises inspected.

February 5, 1903. Five days' notice sent.

February 13. Inspector went over building with owner and pointed out necessary improvements.

February 26, 1903. Inspection; condition found unchanged.

March 4. Reinspected; no change.

March 9. Letter written to owner.

March 20. Owner ordered to start work.

May 7. Some new closets put in, but not enough.

May 12, 1903. Case sent to District Attorney.

May 17. Inspection; condition unchanged.

In this special building there were three tank closets for 216 people; 18 families used one closet; all the plumbing was poor; there were dark bed rooms; the walls were filthy, and the stairs had holes big enough to put your foot through. The notices from the city covered over six years, with little result. On motion of the society, it was ordered vacated, and in five months the building had been thoroughly overhauled, and was in shape for reoccupation, almost as a model tenement.

Of course, evictions as a rule are unjust where repairs without eviction are practicable, but the great advantage of eviction over any other procedure is obvious. If the house is empty, and rents cease, it is for the owner's interest to expedite repairs. He no longer has forty excuses; that the plumbers are busy,

that there has been a strike; that he is doing his best, etc. The next best thing is an order for summary eviction if repairs are not made in a given number of days, but our experience is invariable that when the days are up just enough has been done to show good intention and to justify a plea for an extension. The owner is not only loath to spend, but seeks to disturb the house so little as not to lose the rent of a single tenant during his alterations. When his last extension of time is up the house is so far improved that no order to vacate can be secured, and for the balance of the improvement you have to fall back upon the law and its delays. And with a good lawyer these delays are endless. The plumbers have been so very busy, the order was given in good faith but was not rushed; in other words, there is no inducement to haste and the haste is like that of a funeral procession.

Mr. Gillette, a Buffalo attorney, who is now the chairman of our Tenement House Committee, states effectively the unsatisfactory results of attempts to enforce fines and penalties. "The law provides, to be sure, for the punishment of its violation as a crime. The courts, however, have jurisdiction only through indictment by grand jury, and the proceedings are cumbersome and slow. The penalties are small fines. A landlord with a considerable investment would therefore, in the absence of aggressive administration on the part of the Health authorities, pay his fines cheerfully, though pursued by an energetic prosecuting officer, and continue collecting rents from unsanitary premises without serious inconvenience." Where, as with us, the health department is aggressive and the prosecuting officer is not energetic the punishment by fine becomes still more unsatisfactory. We need an amendment to secure more prompt procedure. At present we have many indictments pending, with slow progress, in spite of a recent call upon the district attorney by the entire committee to urge action.

In communities where there is no satisfactory state law and little likelihood of there being one, local ordinances can often be enacted. A description of the worst houses with vivid details is considered good copy by city editors and public opinion responds readily. The opposition from owners and builders will be violent but can be overcome. The Buffalo ordinances which were obtained in 1893 are in some particulars better than the state

law of 1901, and it was expressly provided that the latter should repeal only such parts of the ordinances as were inconsistent with it. Under section 238 of the Buffalo charter the health commissioner can declare buildings unwholesome, "and upon so declaring the commissioner shall have power to abate the same, in such manner as he may deem expedient." Section 238 of the Charter gives him "power to cause the removal of persons from any building which in his judgment is so crowded by persons dwelling therein as to endanger the public health, "and by section 148 of the ordinances, if it is made known in any way," to the commissioner that any building or room is "unfit for human habitation because of defects of drainage, plumbing, ventilation, or for any other reason," he may order all persons to vacate it.

In cities where there are neither tenement laws nor tenement ordinances the health commissioner may still be able to vacate houses for over crowding or bad plumbing, on the ground that they are dangerous to public health.

Last summer, in Buffalo, the health department failed in an attempt to vacate a notorious tenement. It then introduced an ordinance providing for an extension of its powers which passed both branches of the common council, was approved by the mayor, and favorably reported by the Cities Committee of the Assembly, but failed last week in the Senate, in the closing hours of a crowded session.

It often happens that the health department is too busy, too indifferent, or too timid to enforce a good law. If it is too busy or has an insufficient office force, it will usually welcome the cooperation of a volunteer committee if the committee is sane and rational. Care should be taken with both the health department and the district attorney not to press unimportant technical violations. Our report in 1904 to the health department began with fifteen of the worst tenements, which the commissioner was invited to visit with the committee. "The form of the report was effective. It described conditions in the houses with reference to the statute and city ordinances under the following topics: Fire escapes; basements and cellars; water closets and plumbing; light and ventilation; overcrowding; repairs, cleanliness and miscellaneous. Then followed in each case a tabulation of violations of the laws, referring to them by sections; and in conclusion a history of all action taken by the department of health with reference to these

special houses in the last eight years, which had been compiled with care from the public records. It was a strong document." (*Gillette.*)

The quick response of the health commission was perhaps due in part to an onslaught by a previous committee which might serve as a recipe for galvanizing an indifferent officer. One hundred and three tenements had been complained of in April, 1902, and in December the conditions were found to be practically unchanged. At the annual meeting of the Charity Organization Society soon after, resolutions were adopted which were displayed by every newspaper in the city. On December 29th, immediately after the annual meeting, the society issued a public statement, showing in detail the shocking conditions in some of the worst houses. On January 5th it issued another statement in which it offered the health commissioner full evidence of prostitution in several tenement houses, and called upon him to act. A third statement January 18th showed that the plans of buildings filed with the health department, and passed by it, were often most incomplete; that tenements were built for which no plans had been filed, and others which did not conform to the plans filed. For all this work the services of a special inspector, an architect's clerk, detectives and a young attorney were employed under pay, at a total cost of only $230. Illustrated articles appeared in the Sunday papers, and for a time the town was tenement-mad. The newspapers responded vigorously in defense of the tenement house law, and the health commissioner at once allowed his tenement house inspector to resign, and undertook an enforcement of the law in co-operation with the society. Nothing of the sort has been necessary since.

When a considerable number of vacations had been threatened the Charity Organization Society instructed the agents to search the city for available rooms, and have a list ready in case of need. It has also always offered to pay moving expenses and a month's rent if necessary to avoid hardship. This has not often been necessary. Often the tenants move into some adjoining building, the over-crowding of which is overlooked until they can move back into the improved quarters. As a rule the tenants are Italians or Poles, who move into the country for the summer for fruit picking, so that the alterations are made at a minimum of inconvenience. The scarcity of tenements is shown

by the fact that these families often pay rent all summer for empty rooms in order to secure them.

As a consequence of the improvements there has been a perceptible increase of rent for the tenement house population. This is specially so in the Polish quarter where the over-crowding is no longer allowed. In 1902 we found sixty persons living in a two-story cottage in the Polish quarter; two families of ten and eleven persons occupied one room and a bed-room; and another room and small bed room in this house were occupied by a man, wife, three children and four boarders.

At present, I am told, the new houses going up in the Polish section are mostly two-family cottages, which are not within the provisions of the tenement house law. Everywhere in Buffalo the cottage type prevails. There is hardly a block of houses in the city, in any section, except over stores, and there are few large tenements. Even the model tenement house has been steadily resisted by the members of our committee. We prefer the small cottage tenements.

The best laws do not enforce themselves, and continual vigilance is needed to expose and correct abuses, but we have the necessary machinery and it will be our own fault if we do not permanently escape the tenement evils of the larger cities.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION.

BY PROFESSOR MORRIS LOEB, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

The attitude of the charity worker toward social questions is not utterly unlike that of the hospital physician toward health; the latter is almost led to doubt the existence of healthy persons, because he only comes into contact with patients; and the former, being continually brought in touch with those afflicted either by internal disability or external misfortunes, is very apt to think that the times are out of joint and that improvement can only be obtained by a complete alteration of all social conditions. Conferences such as these should serve to encourage those who are despondent by suggestion of methods which may tend to remedy some of the evils, through following natural lines, rather than in attempting to stem the tide with all sorts of futile barriers.

I confess that I am very much out of patience with some of the so-called remedies for pauperism, for overcrowding, etc., that remind me more or less of the methods employed, according to Dietrich Knickerbocker, for the extirpation of poverty in New Amsterdam, where, as you will remember, the redoubtable William the Testy suspended all paupers by their waistband from the gallows, as an awful example to others who might contemplate sinking into poverty. Above all things do I deprecate the selfish attitude of those who believe their duty complete when they have swept their own doorstep — that is to say, when they have remedied the results of poverty or ignorance in their immediate surroundings and then seek to preserve their serenity by preventing the admission of others whom they might and ought to think it their duty to aid in uplifting.

No matter how we may like it, the earth is made for all and in time the population will so distribute itself that each person will seek that locality which suits his own tastes and his own ability to make a livelihood. If, therefore, we are at times threatened with an unhealthy accumulation of population in any one locality, it is our duty to devise methods for obviating this and it is useless to attempt to erect artificial barriers. No wall is so high that it cannot be climbed over, nor so impervious that it cannot be crawled through, and above all, so strong that it cannot be swept aside by a powerful inrush. Let us, therefore, inquire in what ways a more desirable distribution of population may be brought about.

I admit that this is a question which really belongs to the sociologist, but sometimes the recital of the practical results obtained by continuous work under the direction of laymen, may serve as a valuable hint to the theoretic observer and I shall, therefore, illustrate my suggestions chiefly from experiences that have come directly within the notice of Societies with which I myself happen to be connected.

There is no American city in which overcrowding is as salient an evil or its prevention seemingly as hopeless as New York City — the port of entry for the bulk of transatlantic immigration, the commercial center of the country toward which gravitate, by natural attraction, all those who seek to make money quickly and those who seek to spend it still more rapidly. Considering that these causes promoting an inflow of population,

and that geographical barriers prevent an equable distribution over the city's area, the overcrowded condition of certain sections is readily explained; adding thereto lax police administration and the interference of the doctrine of vested rights with the proper execution of sanitary laws, and we have all the data for the ills to which our tenement house population is subjected by reason of overcrowding.

I desire to state most emphatically my belief, from a knowledge of conditions in foreign cities, that immigration in itself has nothing to do with these conditions and it is my opinion that a dispassionate observer would even find a distinct advantage possessed by a city like New York, whose lowest economic strata consist of immigrants struggling toward a higher plane, as compared with Berlin and Paris, whose slum population is of native origin representing chiefly a degenerating class. Indeed, I think a fruitful comparison might be made between the Whitechapel district in London and the slums of Edinburgh, in determining whether the average morality and public health of a city are affected injuriously by immigration.

I am far from being a socialist, but I must ask whether the overcrowding of New York is to be blamed upon the immigrant, forced to live within a fraction of a tenement house room, rather than upon the family which has pre-empted a quarter of a block on Fifth Avenue and uses it for two months out of the year. The industrial requirements of New York call for a tremendous working population, in whose daily budget transportation between residence and workshop would represent from five to ten per cent. of the wage income and who, therefore, must live within walking distance of the shop at which they are required to report early in the morning. If it were not the immigrant, it would be the native who would crowd into the tenements, and such data as are contained in the eighteenth annual report of the Commissioner of Labor would show that even at the present time the average foreign population is not inferior in cleanliness to the average native-born population, taking the country at large. The evils of overcrowding must be met by proper administrative measures, which will tend to extirpate the unsanitary dwellings; but overcrowding on Essex Street is in itself quite as inevitable as that in the region west of Central Park, where the apartment house

is the answer to the demand of the well-to-do newcomer for a chance to live on Manhattan Island.

There is, however, another side to the life in a great city: The unavoidable attrition of the qualifications of the individual by the stream of humanity with which he is surrounded. The weaker elements undoubtedly succumb more readily in the strenuous life of the large city, than in places where their own feebleness is less strongly contrasted with the vigor of their successful competitors, and it is to remedy this evil that sustained and well directed philanthropic effort should be applied. Hitherto attention has been given almost entirely to the alleviation of distress and, even where it was not a question of actually helping an invalid or a pauper, the idea seems to be prevalent that it is necessary to remove those on the lowest rung of the industrial ladder to prevent their subsequently becoming a burden upon the community. This, I believe, is a fundamental mistake. Between those who would succeed everywhere and those who would fail anywhere lies the great bulk of population whose ability to prosper will depend more or less upon the existence of favorable conditions and who, should the conditions be unfavorable, will gradually sink to a lower level and thereby tend to distress still further the bottom strata. If we can take a considerable slice of this population away from the congested districts and afford them means to establish themselves in the pursuits which their own tastes would make congenial and their talents would make successful, then we may feel that we have performed a work whose results will be felt not only by those immediately assisted, but also by the feebler individuals, upon whom this competition of a slightly more efficient industrial stratum has been resting.

Such efforts have been made during the past twenty years in a more or less systematic manner, for the purpose of relieving the distress occasioned chiefly by the forced immigration from Russia and Roumania and the accumulation of the Jewish refugees in New York and other large American cities. The work has been made possible, to a large extent, by the great gifts of the late Baron and Baroness de Hirsch, supplemented, of course, by voluntary contributions on this side of the water. The work has by no means been uniformly successful and many experiments that were made from time to time may be characterized as utter failures; nevertheless, these individual failures have

been fairly fruitful in determining the principles upon which success could be attained, and I think that the methods which have been gradually developed might at least serve as a proper foundation for similar efforts toward improving the conditions of the general population, if energy and money were forthcoming for the purpose.

In general, we may state what might be considered axiomatic, that no efforts at distribution, which are distinctly contrary to natural conditions, can possibly succeed. Colonization by governmental machinery may be regarded in this category; thus, for instance, the Prussian Government, with its enormous administrative capacity and with great sums placed at its disposal for the purpose of counteracting Polish nationalism in its eastern provinces, has attempted such a colonization during the past fifteen or twenty years, without any appreciable success — not, I think, because the colonists themselves were at fault; but because an effort was made to go directly counter to natural tendencies by introducing a relatively small group of people, virtually with hostile intent, among a comparatively prosperous population. Even in the absence of any personal animosity, it would be a somewhat serious problem to transport whole groups of people into regions not of their own selection,— a truth which the history of the early Russian Jewish immigration has amply demonstrated.

From an anxiety to find homes for large crowds of refugees, land was bought in various sections of this country and in Canada, to which such people were sent as expressed a willingness to go, irrespective of their natural adaptability to country life, and the result which might have been expected speedily followed. The bulk of these people drifted away to cities and if some of these colonies are still existent and even fairly prosperous, this is due to the replacement of the earlier settlers by others who really chose those locations of their own free will. This means, of course, that a considerable amount of money was misspent and quite a large number of people were wandering aimlessly for a considerable period of time.

In the same way, when it was found that the needle industries throve particularly in the overcrowded tenement districts, it was thought that distribution of population could be effected by the removal of clothing factories to suburban locations and

considerable sums of money were spent upon this effort. This, again, was an attempt to directly oppose natural conditions, since factories that depend for their efficiency upon labor alone must, of course, seek the best labor market and the establishment of factories in entirely new districts cannot successfully attract workers who know that they can only be engaged for a limited season and not throughout the year. A town can afford to give premiums to a manufacturer, in order that he may give employment to its surplus labor, but to induce a manufacturer to go somewhere for the purpose of carrying his laboring population with him, is likely to result in failure; the only exception being in the case of such concerns as would have a practical monopoly in their own branch of industry and could give fairly uniform employment throughout the year to skilled workers who would not be likely to obtain positions with competitors situated in more populous localities.

Finding it impossible, therefore, to remove whole groups of people, we had recourse to the experiment of handling individual cases upon their own merits and obtaining employment in smaller towns for those who were out of work in large cities. Many charitable institutions have considered the maintenance of a free employment office as a proper branch of their activity, but they have generally met with two serious obstacles; first, the fact that they were usually the resort of the inefficient, and secondly, that they were seeking to place their people in a market already glutted with that particular kind of labor. Where the employer is really in need of help, he is likely to advertise for it rather than wait for it to come to him, and even where he is willing to deal with an employment agency, he will look with suspicion upon one that asks him now and then to accept an individual for charity's sake. Where, however, the employment agency seeks to put an efficient man in a new place where there is a real local demand for his labor, these troubles would be obviated.

The Industrial Removal Office was established in 1901 upon these principles and the system that has gradually been evolved has proven satisfactory in the main. In New York is located the chief office, where applications are received from persons seeking employment out of town. The case is considered upon its merits, such information being obtained by correspondence and direct

investigation as may indicate the character and ability of the man. A man with a trade is, of course, considered preferable to one who has no skilled profession, but both classes are accepted; only those who are already employed being refused, for fear of creating dissatisfaction if the new employment found for them should prove inferior to the positions which they have left. Correspondence is meanwhile maintained with branch offices in the larger interior cities as well as with small volunteer committees established throughout the land — these committees sometimes being special organizations, sometimes branches of the local Jewish charities or benevolent societies. Some of these committees will express a readiness to receive any kind of people that are sent to them, provided they are able-bodied and industrious. Others will, from time to time, inform the central office of a local demand for certain kinds of artisans in their respective cities; naturally, this latter class of orders is preferred, but while the applicants are carefully classified according to the trades in which they claim to possess skill, it is by no means possible at all times to fill the demand for such help; in fact, I believe that at the present time the conditions in New York City are so favorable for skilled labor, that artisans willing to leave for interior points are rather scarce. Of course, even in the absence of specific orders, the home office will exercise its judgment in selecting the locality to which people are to be sent, if they do not themselves express a distinct preference; thus a furrier will naturally be sent to a northern city, while carpenters and cabinet makers are most likely to find employment in the middle west.

On the other hand, the local committees bind themselves to use their best endeavors to place the unclassified men who are sent to them and they are able to do so more effectively because advance notice is given them of the kind of people they are to receive. Usually, a man is placed within the first twenty-four hours after his arrival, although it may happen that he loses his job within a few hours or expresses himself dissatisfied, and then a new position is found for him, until he is either satisfactorily placed, or goes off from his own free will, or is given up as a hopeless case by the committee. In rare instances, it has been found that mistakes were made at the home office in sending out such applicants and this error is rectified by forwarding

the return fare to the local committee; but the home office does not in general accept much responsibility, and the mistake must have been a palpable one if this remedy is to be applied.

The local committees are reimbursed for their actual administrative expenditures and they are allowed to spend a small sum, if necessary, in the temporary support of new arrivals until the first pay day comes. All these details, however, lie in the discretion of the local committee and are handled differently in different places. The home office also bears the expense of transportation in all cases where it is found that the applicant has no means whatsoever, but sometimes exacts small sums as an evidence of good faith, where the man is not absolutely poverty-stricken. Married men are usually sent ahead of their families with the promise that the latter shall follow as soon as the husbands have become self-supporting.

One of the firm rules of the Society forbids interference with strikes, that is to say, we do not send people to cities where a general strike is in progress in their class of labor and our local committees are also instructed not to accept offers of work from shops where the employes are on strike. If there have been any infractions of this rule, it was due to insufficient information,— never to a departure from the policy.

The second important regulation prohibits the sending of dependent individuals or families without the previously obtained assent of the local charities. It frequently happens that fairly well-to-do persons will express their willingness to take care of poverty-stricken relatives, if they will be sent to them by the Removal Office and this is done, provided the local charity satisfies itself that the proposition is made in good faith.

The Industrial Removal Office shipped to interior points from New York —

1,830 persons in 1901
3,208 persons in 1902
5,525 persons in 1903
6,023 persons in 1904
6,005 persons in 1905

22,591 persons in five years, of whom about 14,000 were adult male wage earners.

Of the 6,005 sent out last year, there went to —

New England	83
Middle Atlantic States	1,019
Southern States, Eastern Group	475
Southern States, Western Group	264
Central States, Eastern Group	2,290
Central States, Western Group	1,178
Mountain and Pacific States, Northern Group	83
Mountain and Pacific States, Southern Group	463
Canada	150
	6,005

The 3,528 male wage earners sent out in 1905 represented 48 different occupations in addition to those without special vocation and a rough classification would show —

Structural workers	22. %
Artisans	21.2 %
Needle workers	15.16%
Commercial	2.6 %
Farmers	2.1 %
Professionally educated	0.8 %
Unskilled	36.14%
	100.00%

Careful inquiry is made every two months to determine the condition of those sent out and, from reports actually received, at least 80 per cent. of the removals appear to have been permanent. Since the experiment proved so satisfactory to the management, branch offices were established in Boston and Philadelphia, to assist in relieving the congestion at those ports, so that the entire number of persons removed last year was 7,029.

Naturally, such work is expensive, since its success depends upon careful administrative work, both in the selection and placing out of applicants; over $71,000 was paid out last year to transportation companies alone. But the total per capita cost averages under $20 and the actual results of the outlay are far greater than can be directly calculated. Much of the congestion at the seaboard is due to ignorance on the part of immigrants, for whom New York is synonymous with America. There is direct as well as indirect evidence that every family successfully planted in an interior town draws at least one other family away

from New York and, if it be found that an increasing percentage of new Jewish arrivals is booked through to interior points, the Removal Office may at least claim some credit for this result.

At one time it was indeed hoped that, by placing an agent at Ellis Island, a portion of the stream might be directly diverted, but the experiment proved unsuccessful. In the excitement of the arrival, little attention is paid to words of disinterested advice and the average time spent at the Immigrant Station is too limited to enable the agent to select those most likely to listen to reason. I fear that this will be the experience of the industrial agencies which various states are urged to establish at Ellis Island. The right time for propaganda is the tedious ocean voyage. If the United States Government finds that it pays to send mail clerks to and fro on the ocean liners, why does it not try the experiment of establishing information bureaus on some of the big immigrant ships, to distribute suitable reading matter, to warn against swindlers, to provide a few illustrated talks in the immigrants' own tongues? Every day brings a new scheme for investing our consuls abroad with inquisitorial powers whose exercise would lead to the prompt annulment of their exequatur; for establishing official and secret agents at hundreds of inland towns and medical inspectors at seaports, all for the purpose of adding a few tenths to the fractional percentage of immigrants now legally excluded. But who thinks of frankly advising those, who come here with no criminal intent, in the best ways for establishing themselves successfully? A diminutive Industrial Removal Office, on board a big liner, would yield wonderful results; but no private society could afford the experiment, for fear of offending against our Immigration Law, even though its agent should not approach a passenger before they were on the high seas.

In concluding a recital of the work of Industrial Removal, it might be interesting to give individual examples as to the success of the plan; but they would prove little, since they would only corroborate the statement, that the people sent out are neither paupers nor inefficient. Had they remained in the city, they might have found work sooner or later; but it would have been at the expense of their health and comfort, and they would have crowded others. Just as the skillful forester transplants a tree, both for its own sake and that of its neighbors, these people

have not only been benefited themselves by their removal from the crowded tenement. In so much may we consider this transfer of the wage earner more effective in its philanthropic aspect, than the relief of the pauper.

One criticism cannot be answered: The bulk of removals only transfer from the larger cities to the smaller ones, or at best to the towns; but the very success of our measure depends upon our taking people as they are, merely finding a round hole for our round peg,— the wage earner must go to the labor market; only the man with a little capital of his own can be established in the village or open country and the machinery to accomplish this satisfactorily has yet to be devised. The most attractive problem of all would be the placing of the would-be farmer upon his own land. Notwithstanding the contrary opinion expressed to me by so competent an authority as the honored President of this Conference, I do not hesitate to assert that very effective work could be done in this direction, if only systematic and well-digested methods be substituted for spasmodic and quasi-sensational schemes.

To lift an alms house or municipal lodging house bodily, like Aladdin's palace, and set it down in a prairie, which its inmates were to plough before breakfast, is only a degree more fantastic than some of the propositions that are made from time to time. A farming life is arduous and its successful prosecution requires much more than a willingness to try what it is like, or an apathetic acquiescence in the dictum of a moneyed benefactor. But, even though every hundred flocking from the country to the city be offset by only five city-dwellers anxious and fit to return to the cultivation of the soil, proper encouragement of the latter might in the end produce respectable results. With increased means of communication and transportation, some of the serious drawbacks of country life are being overcome and even now the trend toward farming is distinctly on the increase.

What agencies, however, exist to which the intending farmer can turn? Government homesteads still dangle as a prize for the home seeker; but the $15 registration fee does not tell the story. Neglecting the fact that the most available land has already been pre-empted, and that the inexperienced colonist must search long and warily for a suitable location, he must live on his cap-

ital for many months, before he receives the first return for his labor. If he is unencumbered, he can hire out for a season or two, and at least make his living expenses, while breaking out his holding little by little and waiting until he can obtain title to his land and thereby sufficient credit to enable him to till his land productively. The man who settles with his family needs at least $2,000 to escape bankruptcy in the first two years. Now, that sum will establish a man fairly well on a small eastern farm, provided he is industrious and thrifty; and, though his chance at making money quickly be small, his risk is comparatively slight and he is not obliged to do pioneer work with the discomforts that would soon dismay the city-bred man.

The organization which seeks to encourage such enterprises must be prepared to advise in the selection as well as in the proper cultivation of the farms, and to extend credit on more liberal terms of interest and repayment than could be obtained from banks or private lenders. Thus, the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society lends sums varying from $100 to $600 on second or third mortgages, at 4 per cent., the principal repayable within ten years in gradually increasing instalments. It has thus dealt with about 1,400 individual farmers, whose holdings exceed 125,000 acres, with a total valuation of about $2,700,000; to these people it has loaned, in the course of six years, about $210,000, whereof $9,000 have been repaid through voluntary sale of property, $4,300 under foreclosure, and $6,500 were lost on chattel loans made to homesteaders, leaving about $190,000 loaned to permanent settlers, whereof $32,000 — more than one-sixth — has already been paid back by instalments. This showing would be even more favorable if all loans to homesteaders were eliminated, as there would then be a loss of principal amounting to less than 0.3 per cent.; the interest delinquency is not at all considerable and is virtually all collectible.

Now, there are many causes reducing the chances of the Russian Jewish farmer as compared with those of the native American, or of the immigrant whose ancestors have been permitted to own and till the soil. For this reason, I claim that an efficiently managed benevolent loan association would run practically no risk as to its capital and might meet its current expenses out of the interest charged to its beneficiaries. In fact, its influence might reach far beyond its own outlays by curbing the

activities of the land-grabbers; just as the Provident Loan Society has brought the private pawnbrokers of New York City to a more reasonable scale of charges. In states where 12 per cent. compound interest is a legal rate, banks and private lenders vie with one another in offering loans to inexperienced farmers, the moment the latter obtain title to their lands, with the expectation that they can purchase the property at their own terms, when the first year's interest falls due. Even in the East, demand mortgages are the rule rather than the exception, and a mortgage bank, lending capital repayable in properly adjusted instalments, at reasonable interest, would afford the agricultural producer that stability of credit which is deemed essential in all commercial enterprises.

All this is no new discovery. Banks of this character have been carried on abroad under government management or by co-operative enterprise, and the results have been very good. If tried here, they would at least foster agriculture naturally, by removing some of the difficulties which beset the farmer; and they would neither be as liable to failure nor as limited in application as the colonization schemes of the Salvation Army and others, who would lead us to believe that a colony of successful farmers can be manufactured, so to speak, out of a group of paupers or unsuccessful artisans. The active, energetic man who prefers to leave the city for the country should be aided in carrying out his plan and the total result would be more than encouraging.

It remains for the state to see to it that the farmer's life is made more comfortable by providing better roads, affording greater security of person and property by the establishment of rural constabulary, greater intellectual advantages by the substitution of state for district school systems, and greater flexibility of resources by the simplification of the laws governing the farmers' monetary transactions.

Industrial Removal and Agricultural Aid represent immediate measures for remedying the evils of congestion; indeed, they are naturally tending toward the limit which will be reached when all those willing to leave the city are enabled to do so. To permanently dislocate the ratio between influx and efflux, educational forces must be evoked; the tendencies which crowd the factories with unskilled labor must be counteracted. I seek this

remedy in the right kind of trade or technical school, by no means in the manual training school or the evening classes in which the rudiments of certain crafts are taught haphazard, giving just that smattering of skill which will procure a boy a small job in a crowded factory, but by no means that knowledge which will make him a master craftsman, able to stand on his own feet and select his own surroundings. The type which I admire is to be found in the Textile School in this city, where industrial knowledge rather than manual skill is the aim. A graded, correlated curriculum, in place of independent practice classes, is the criterion which separates the two kinds of schools; the elective system can play no part in the scheme, once the profession has been chosen. Many years' connection with a school of this description has convinced me that the results are remarkably good when measured by the percentage of successful graduates and especially by the diversification and relative independence of their pursuits; in spite of obvious limitations, due to the fact that it is a sectarian institution, with a small annual income, and has a comparatively small building in which to conduct its operations. Even under these disadvantages, the annual per capita cost of instruction only slightly exceeds $100, a considerable part of which is represented by fundamental expenses which would not be increased if the size of the school were doubled or trebled. In view of the objections so frequently raised against the excessive cost of technical education, I think this an encouraging bit of information.

European critics usually find that our higher institutions of technical learning are very good, but the trade schools, which have done so much to promote the industrial supremacy of Germany, and the artistic success of France and Switzerland, are almost entirely lacking with us. Go into any establishment, outside of a machine shop, in which skilled individual labor is required and you will find the higher positions filled by foreign-bred workmen. That is the reason why the American wage earning population will gradually be drawn into factories, where wages will be paid in proportion to the skill acquired at some particular one-sided manipulation, and its mobility will be correspondingly reduced. This intensified training in a very limited operation has led to the overcrowding in the tailoring industry, to which the term "sweating" is probably no more correctly ap-

plied than to the work in the cotton mills, or in the silk spinning and weaving establishments, or other factories where one particular manipulation is done over and over again, without pause or relief. The technical school, if properly conducted, will take a certain and, possibly, an ever increasing proportion of young men and women out of the necessity to seek such one-sided methods of gaining their livelihood. It will not attempt to make them "Jacks of all trades" but it will at least give them freedom of motion and in that way contribute more largely than any other single factor toward relieving congestion.

My plea, then, is for a rational individual treatment of the evils which are complained of; no procrustean measures will suffice or even be moderately effective, but careful study of the ultimate causes and adequate measures for their removal will in the end have the desired effect. Let us imitate the wonderful methods adopted by the French Government in preventing the annual floods in the Jura — no big dams of formidable masonry with empty menace throughout eleven months of the year against a torrent whose sudden onward rush would, after all, be likely to overwhelm them; but little conduits to regulate the streams, and interlaced brush-work on the hillsides to guard against undue erosion and hold back some of the flood until the remainder has found its natural resting place.

PLAYGROUNDS.

BY MABEL MEADE.

From Revolutionary times, when soldiers crowded the school boys off Boston Common, until the last few years, the play of children has not been considered important. The American people, however, are now waking up to the necessity of not only giving their boys and girls time and place to play, but also instruction and encouragement in their games. Roosevelt has said: "Public playgrounds are a necessary means for the development of wholesome citizenship in modern cities," voicing in other words the adage, "The child who plays hard is father to the man who works well." Because America needs men who "work well," she also needs playgrounds and is beginning to realize their possibilities.

The present idea of playgrounds was introduced into America (1886) by some ladies who had noticed the German children playing in sand heaps in the parks of Berlin. From these sand piles, playgrounds have developed, and it remains with the ingenuity and resourcefulness of the American to show what this most fertile idea may mean to thousands of children, and grown-ups as well.

Germany is foremost in all sorts of athletics and gymnastics. Play-work is made a part of the curriculum in many schools. Yet the universities have up to the present made little provision for athletics. The sand gardens are for the benefit of the younger children. They consist in their most improved plan, of boxes, not too wide, filled with clean sand, which is often changed to keep it wholesome, in which the tiny folks may dig and roll about. The mothers sit by and rest, perhaps knitting as they chat. All are outdoors in the free, clean air.

Concert playgrounds are also found in Germany. Americans might plan a similar department, for mothers who wish to attend church. In one of our cities, the only day nursery then in existence, was often crowded on matinee afternoons by children whose mothers wished to attend the theater. The authorities had to stop it. But why shouldn't the mothers be encouraged thus to get recreation, of the right kind, in moderation?

In England play is practically compulsory in the public schools. School buildings, even in crowded districts, are surrounded by grounds of considerable size, and in most congested districts, there are roof playgrounds.

Perhaps the first city to establish municipal playgrounds was Glasgow. Now Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Hamburg and London have done much to provide for games of all kinds in their parks. New York, Chicago, St. Louis and Boston, as well as some other cities are making great progress along these lines.

Few American cities are so planned that playgrounds can be provided on the grounds of the school buildings. Perhaps the stern, serious character of our Puritan ancestors has made play seem almost a sin to us. But present conditions require space for healthful recreation in small as well as large cities. Life on the street is too full of dangers to morals and health. Children must be active, and play is a safe and educating vent for cooped-up energy.

A step further back in the development of the playground movement is the vacation school, begun in Boston, by Miss Very, years ago. To connect the school and play movement would tend to make the school more attractive, and would help to a good understanding between pupils and teachers. School playgrounds may consist of the basement or roof of the school building, if there is not sufficient outdoor space available. Every school-house in New York is now required by law to furnish a playground.

Municipal playgrounds are intended for children under fifteen. There are usually instructors in gymnastics and kindergarten teachers in charge, though supervision may not be as close as in school playgrounds. Each ground is generally surrounded by a running track. It contains a good outdoor gymnasium, basket-ball court, swings, seesaws and open space for general play, with sand banks at one side for the little ones. Sometimes there are bath houses, boys and girls having separate buildings. Seward Park, New York, is probably the best arranged municipal playground in the world.

Most city playgrounds are open from eight or nine in the morning until six in the afternoon. Some are open only in the afternoon. A few grounds make arrangements for evening sessions for the older people and young men and women who are busy through the day. Many grounds are open only in the summer months, when the schools are closed. But for the younger children, earlier opening in the spring and later closing in the fall is desirable. In many regions of our country the grounds are used in winter also, and in cold climates there is a call for skating ponds and toboggan slides.

Many city children who have spent years trying to play on a tiny patch of ground with no blue heaven or sunshine above, or on a street crowded with trucks and fruit stands, do not know how to play when introduced to the playground. After a time they show interest and seem to have gained new life. Selfish and overbearing children learn self-denial and gentleness.

In a few playgrounds a self-governing system of supervision has been successful. Here as in other places where self-government is attempted, much depends on the leader and the spirit of the head officers elected. Where this plan proves safe, a great

benefit is derived by the whole body of children. The lessons learned and the experience gained are helpful throughout life.

Some of the lessons taught are cleanliness, politeness, justice, honesty, purity of word and action, and kindness. A spirit of unity is aroused too — a spirit of loyalty — which makes American patriots of the children of all nations, who gather on these recreation grounds.

From no source do we obtain a hint that the playground movement is a failure. If given a fair trial under competent supervision, success in its fullest meaning is assured.

It has been claimed that the property adjoining these noisy quarters depreciates in value. But if the playground is in a park or on a school ground, there could be no such complaint. And as far as possible such locations should be secured. However, more small grounds are preferable to a few large ones far apart. This will necessitate using any vacant spaces available, and people will have to be educated to endure the childlife near by.

There can now be no doubt that these playgrounds are worth while, but how they can be supported is a disputed question. Should the departments of education, park, or street, have charge of them, or should a separate department be organized? Wherever the control is located, some competent supervision must be maintained. Even well equipped playgrounds are not popular if no director is present, and undirected play is not as far reaching in good results as games looked after, it may be only casually, by a supervisor who understands his task.

Very few directors, properly trained in this work, are obtainable. In Europe several schools for the sole purpose of training playground supervisors exist. Some normal schools in our country give a partial training, but so far adequate preparation for these positions is not to be found.

At the St. Louis Exposition, there was on exhibition a model playground. Many playgrounds cannot be arranged on a model plan, because of varying conditions and surroundings.

The Women's Clubs of the country have been active in promoting playgrounds as well as in such efforts as vacation schools, traveling libraries, free baths, summer outing clubs, etc. Private donations and independent enterprises increase the work in many lines.

A few of our large cities, New York, Chicago, Boston and

Philadelphia, have made such great advances in the playground movement that a few points of interest in connection with what has been done, are here presented.

In New York the movement centers in the public schools. A large number of boys' clubs are organized and a great many men share the privileges. There are also many girls' and women's clubs. A very beneficial extension is the vacation schools, a large number of which, are conducted during the summer. Most of the playgrounds are basement rooms of school buildings or roof spaces.

Boston has the highest ratio of park area of any city in the world, and it now has twenty-two playgrounds.

Chicago has a Special Park Commission, whose duties are to extend parks and manage playgrounds. The skating rink is a significant feature here. Special attention is paid to having an ample supply of drinking water. The shelters, etc., are designed by a committee from the Chicago Architectural League. Nearly all the grounds in Chicago are under municipal control.

Philadelphia owes its interest in playgrounds and vacation schools to Stoyan Isanoff, of Bulgaria, who came here seeking help for his own country.

As we consider the results of the movement, we quote the words of Judge Lindsey, who says: "Playgrounds are an economy to a city, because they lessen crime."*

* See Appendix B, p. 611, for tabulated statement of playgrounds in cities.

XII.

State Supervision and Administration.*

EFFICIENCY IN STATE CHARITABLE AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

BY J. FRANK HANLY, GOVERNOR OF INDIANA.

"For the poor shall never cease out of the land: therefore I command thee, saying, Thou shalt open thine hand wide unto thy brother, to thy poor, and to thy needy, in thy land."—Deut. 15:11.

"And if thy brother be waxen poor, and fallen in decay with thee; then thou shalt relieve him."—Lev. 25:35.

"When thou cuttest down thine harvest in thy field, and hast forgot a sheaf in the field, thou shalt not go again to fetch it: it shall be for the stranger, for the fatherless, and for the widow." Deut. 24:19.

Thus spoke the great Law Giver of the olden time. His words were spoken to another people, in another land, and in a far distant age, but, transmitted through the intervening years from generation to generation, they are now come down to us, the inhabitants of a new and mighty land, their meaning widened and intensified by the experience of centuries.

The evolution of the race has gone steadily on; its progress has been ever forward, ever upward, but the poor have "never ceased out of the land." They are with us yet, great and rich though we are. Indeed, our obligation to them in the light of this new day is greater than it has ever been.

Conditions have greatly changed. The increase of population, the advance of civilization and the consequent complexity of life have made the burden of benevolence too great for the individual to bear, and it has fallen upon the State. The command is no longer to the citizen as a single unit, save as he is an integral part of the body of the people, but to the collected total,—to the State itself. The assumption of this duty by the State is due to two causes, either of which is sufficient justification for its acts.

First. Congested population, highly developed civilization, intensity of activity, and complexity of life have so accelerated

* Discussion on State Supervision, p. 544.

the increase in certain causes of dependency, such as insanity, feeble mindedness, epilepsy and tuberculosis, as to compel the State for economic reasons, and sometimes in sheer self-preservation, to assume in full the burden of benevolence along such lines. This increase has far outrun the increase in population.

Second. For two thousand years there has been coming more and more into the hearts and lives of men something of the pity and the mercy of the Christ, and of appreciation of the tender, pervasive and all-inclusive quality of His love. From this there has sprung a sentiment of humanity, supplemented and strengthened by a new-born sense of social responsibility which has exercised an impelling,— aye! I will put it stronger, a compelling influence upon the State to assume the charge of classes of dependents long left wholly to private care. The fact that man is his brother's keeper has been pressed home upon the conscience of the citizen so forcibly as to cause him to insist from time to time that new classes of dependents or defectives should be taken over by the State to become its children.

In this connection, a number of recent instances of the ever-widening responsibility of the State, due largely to this influence, may be given. For example, the feeble minded became a State charge but a few years ago. Epileptics are only now coming under the State's care, and provision for the victims of tuberculosis is being made by the State for the first time in the world's history.

The care of convicted criminals has long devolved upon the State. That the father, as the family head, should assume the responsibility of disciplining the members of his household who infract the rules laid down for its government, or disturb the peace of the family, was but a natural and logical conclusion. Its exercise was essential to the preservation of the family or home as an institution. It is quite as natural, quite as logical, and quite as necessary that the State assume the duty of punishing, for deterrent and correctional purposes, such of its citizens as violate its laws, or commit acts of aggression upon the rights of society, or the body of its citizenship. The State for sufficient reasons has taken from the individual citizen, save under narrow and exceptional circumstances, all right to inflict punishment upon another citizen. It has assumed for itself full responsibility in all such cases.

Thus the burden of benevolence along certain lines and the responsibility of punishment and correction, come to rest primarily upon the State alone. In order to properly administer the high trust it has assumed, it has been compelled to establish and construct great charitable and correctional institutions, with the maintenance and administration of which it now stands charged before the world.

The State's problem of dealing wisely and generously with its helpless and unfortunate children, whether in charitable or correctional institutions, is a vast, an intricate and an ever increasingly difficult one, involving questions of policy, of finance and of administration, and leads us at once to the consideration of the subject of this paper.

Having taken over certain classes of dependent and defective citizens into its own immediate keeping, the State is daily confronted with the questions of the kind of care it shall give them and of the methods of giving it. Passing to the consideration of these questions, and keeping in mind the fact that the State can act only upon the consent of a majority of its citizens, and the further fact that the kind of care it can give is necessarily limited to present-day scientific knowledge, together with such knowledge as we may possess of the causes which produce dependency, we find them falling naturally into two divisions, viz.:

First. What can be done now with the present state of public sentiment and scientific advancement?

Second. Toward what object shall we work in the future?

In answer to so much of the first question as relates to what can be done now under the present state of public sentiment, I trust I may be pardoned for pointing to what is being done in my own State. By the Constitution, the duty of caring for the insane is enjoined upon the State. While much has been done since the adoption of the Constitution in 1852, the obligation imposed has never been fully met. But progress is now being rapidly made. Under an act of the late General Assembly, new cottages are being constructed at one of the old institutions for the insane, and a new institution has been authorized and located and will soon be in process of construction. When completed according to designs adopted, it will be modern in every particular and will admit of the highest type of humane and scientific administration. Five hundred and sixty thousand dollars have

been appropriated for its construction, and as planned it will require a half million more, making an aggregate cost of $1,000,000. It will enable the State to take the insane from the poor houses and jails of the several counties where they have remained without proper care or treatment under conditions which have eliminated the question of cure or even improvement, and place them in an institution amid humane surroundings and under rational and scientific treatment where improvement and even recovery may be assured.

The same General Assembly authorized the establishment and construction of a new School for the Deaf, and appropriated $315,000 for that purpose. A site has been purchased and plans have been prepared which insure the construction of a model institution, at an approximate cost of $650,000.

The separation of the Industrial School for Girls from the Woman's Prison was also provided for, and a new institution established, which is rapidly nearing completion. For this purpose $250,000 were appropriated, and $100,000 additional will be required to complete it as planned.

An Epileptic Village has been authorized, and a site purchased, with a first appropriation of $150,000, and a commission created and appointed for the purpose of investigating the subject of tuberculosis, with a view to the establishment of an institution for the treatment of the victims of that dread disease.

This, in brief, is the institutional program of the present administration as authorized by the late General Assembly, in addition to repairs, additions, and a number of new buildings at existing institutions. It is a heavy program, involving an aggregated final expenditure of something like three millions of dollars. But adequate buildings are essential to efficiency in such institutions. In urging it upon the consideration of the members of the General Assembly, I said to them, "The deed, if done, will square itself with the years." And now, with the program well under way and its cost before the people, I am justified in saying to you that both are sustained by the public sentiment of the State. I am, therefore, able to say to you, in answer to the material side of the question propounded, *this much can be done now under the present state of public sentiment in Indiana.*

There is, however, another phase of the subject more important in my opinion than the material or financial side just

considered. It relates to the question of administration in State institutions. The question might be put in this form: "What can be done now in the way of administration in State institutions under the present state of public sentiment?" To adequately answer this question, I must again refer to the institutions of Indiana, though, for so doing, I am compelled again to crave your pardon. But I know most about them. They represent the highest practical expression of the aims and ideals, not only of those charged with their administration, but of the people of the State, and what we are doing in them makes a far better and more satisfactory answer to the question than any untried theory which I might present could do.

There, fitness is the sole test of eligibility and of tenure. The policy of the present administration was made clear in the beginning. Care was taken at the very moment of assuming the oath of office that there should be no misunderstanding. Here is the announcement then made:

"These institutions have been placed upon a plane far above partisan politics, and there this administration intends to keep them. There shall be no backward step. Above all personal and party obligations, however sacred and binding they may be, I hold the good of the State and the welfare of its unfortunate wards. There shall be no removal of persons holding positions in any of such institutions except for the good of the institutions themselves. Upright and efficient service will guarantee continued tenure of position. Negligent and incompetent service will insure immediate removal."

The policy then declared has not been departed from, and shall not be departed from during the administration.

The organization of each of the institutions is as follows:

First: The Governor;
Second: The Board of Trustees;
Third: The Superintendent;
Fourth: Officers and employes.

Separate institutions for different classes of dependents or defectives are provided. Each has its own Board of Trustees, its own Superintendent, officers and employes, and all are selected because of merit, fitness and efficiency. The Board of Trustees is accountable to the Governor, the Superintendent to the Board,

and all officers and employes to the Superintendent. Each Board and the entire management of the institution is non-partisan. In three of the four hospitals for the insane, the Superintendents are of opposite politics from that of the administration, and I am confident that they sleep as soundly and are as certain of their tenure of office as they would be were they in accord with the political convictions of the administration. Political "pull" is unknown in any charitable or correctional institution in Indiana. The Governor appoints the members of the Board. The Board selects the Superintendent. The Superintendent selects all officers and employes. This is true not only in theory, but in actual practice. In the sixteen months of the present administration, the Governor has not made a single recommendation to any Board or to any Superintendent for the appointment of any person to any position in any such institution. Nor has the management of the party to which he belongs expected him to do so. Indeed, the chairman of the State Committee of the dominant party has been and is among the staunchest supporters of this policy.

It was not always so, however; nor did it become so without long struggle and courageous battle. The beneficiaries of the old system did not readily surrender. Fifteen years ago from my seat in the State Senate, I saw a Senator of ability and of great personal force walk up and down the aisles of that chamber, denouncing the author and supporters of a bill then pending, which provided for the non-partisan management of the State's institutions, and heard him boldly declare that all institutional positions, from boards and superintendents to the humblest employe, belonged as of right to his party as the just spoils of victory at the polls. And the pity of it all was that his view prevailed in that Assembly. In those days the spoils system was firmly established in Indiana. Every employe, the superintendent, the doctor, the ward attendant, the cook and the washerwoman bore the party stamp. Contracts for supplies were let to those who had rendered service in political campaigns as a reward for such services. Inferior supplies were purchased and paid for at the prices of the best. Inexperience and inefficiency were the rule. Peculation and knavery were frequent. Commonplaceness and mediocrity were everywhere. We were sowing the wind and reaping the whirlwind. Disgrace and shame, the certain fruit of the system of spoils and plunder we were main-

taining, were ours in full measure. Such a system will destroy the efficiency of any institution anywhere.

But all this has changed in Indiana. It is a far cry from the conditions just described to those of the present. To-day the administration of these institutions all understand and recognize the sacredness of the trust they have assumed and appreciate the fact that their responsibility is to the inmates of the institutions and to the public, and to no party or political organization. Efficiency of administration has been greatly improved. The inmates are kindlier cared for and more scientifically treated. Strict but sane economy is practiced. With them economy does not mean penuriousness, nor does generosity mean extravagance. Supplies are purchased only upon competitive bids. "Value received for money expended" is the watch-word. As a consequence the cost of maintenance has been greatly reduced. In 1891 the per capita cost of the charitable institutions was $222.79; last year, $173.90; a difference of $48.89. The total maintenance cost for the year 1905 was $1,156,518.86; but at the per capita cost for 1891, the total maintenance would have been $1,481,676.03; a saving of $325,157.17, enough in a single year to pay for the construction of the Girls' Industrial School we are now building. Under the present system few complaints are made. When charges of mismanagement are filed, they are promptly investigated by the Board of State Charities, and the truth ascertained and declared. Its decisions are generally accepted by all the people. The rights of the weakest as well as the strongest are being guarded and protected. Prompt investigation of charges of mismanagement, continual supervision and frequent inspection, are absolutely essential to efficient administration.

This is Indiana's answer to the question, "What can be done in the way of efficient administration and scientific treatment in State institutions." And the glory of it is that the policy is so firmly imbedded in public opinion that it cannot be successfully overthrown by any party or any administration.

The correctional institutions of the State are under a like management, and in these, as in the charitable institutions, great progress has been and is still being made. Appreciating the rights and dignity of free labor, and its inestimable value to society and to the State, we have abolished the contract labor system so long in vogue in the State Reformatory, and have substituted trade

schools therefor. A school of letters has also been established. From the experience already gained, we believe these schools will serve three useful purposes: They will bring to the State an increased revenue, give employment to the young men confined in the Reformatory, and better equip them to successfully meet the conditions of life that await them upon their discharge. We believe —

"'Tis not enough to help the feeble up,"

and therefore seek first to help them up and then to so equip them that they can afterward support themselves. We expect the trade schools to furnish the different State institutions and the several political divisions of the State with many supplies, and at a less cost than they can be had in the open market.

Having in view a like purpose when the prison labor contracts expire at the State Prison, we have established a binder twine plant in that institution, which will give employment to many men without competing in any way with free labor in the State, and which will put a good quality of binder twine into the hands of the Indiana farmer at less cost than he has ever known.

All these institutions are under the advisory supervision of a Board of State Charities, whose members serve without compensation. Much of the improvement made in the management and administration of them, is due to the helpful knowledge and kindly suggestions of the members of that Board.

Marked as has been the progress made in the administration of State institutions, we have made even greater progress in the matter of official out-door relief to dependents. This has been accomplished under a system of State supervision, inaugurated and perfected within the last eight years. Indeed, the present law has wrought an absolute revolution in the practice and methods of the township overseers of the poor. Through the kindness of Mr. Amos Butler, Secretary of the Board of State Charities, (you do well to cheer his name, for I know of few men who render more service to their State or to city day by day and year by year) through his kindness I am able to give you a succinct and accurate account of this law and the results obtained under it.

The truth is, when I want to know anything about State institutions or other conditions, or if I want figures that won't

lie and in the preparation of which no man has lied, I am inclined to go to Amos Butler, and I nearly always get a satisfactory answer. It requires a careful, businesslike administration of the poor funds, thorough investigation of conditions and needs, co-operation with existing relief societies and other modern ideas of relief giving. The trustees are required to levy a tax upon the property of their respective townships to raise the money necessary for relieving the poor, and are thus made directly responsible to their own constituents for their handling of the public money. Provision is made for thorough supervision by the Boards of County Commissioners and by the Board of State Charities. The duties of the trustees and the commissioners, respectively, in the relief of the poor, are sharply defined. The oversight of the poor not in institutions is left solely to the trustees, and the commissioners are prohibited from giving aid to any one outside a public institution. Relief by the trustees is to be temporary only; when permanent aid becomes necessary, it is to be given by the commissioners through the public institutions. I do not believe there is a better law in any State of the Union on the subject of official out-door aid. The results obtained under it commend the law more eloquently than any words of mine could do. In 1895 official out-door relief aggregated $630,168.79; last year, $249,884.68; a reduction of $380,284.11. The average annual reduction each year since 1895 has been, as compared with that year, $337,192.09. The number of persons receiving out-door relief has been reduced from 82,235 in 1897 to 45,331 in 1905, a reduction of 36,904, or an annual average reduction as compared with 1897 of 29,865.

It was predicted by those opposed to the inauguration of the reform that its inauguration, though resulting in lessening the aggregate of out-door relief, and the number of persons aided, would result in an increase of the population in local and State institutions, which would soon overflow them and necessitate additional buildings. But the condition predicted has not come to pass. Indeed, quite the reverse condition obtains. From 1890 to 1900, (ten years), the population of the State increased 14 per cent.; from 1891 to 1905, (fourteen years), the population of the county poor asylums decreased 4 per cent. In 1891, 14.8 persons out of each 10,000 of the inhabitants of the State were in county poor asylums. In 1905, but 12.4 persons in each 10,000

of inhabitants were in county poor asylums. These last figures are based upon the population of the State in 1900. If the increase in population from 1900 to 1905 were considered, the poor in county asylums for each 10,000 of the State's inhabitants, would be quite considerably decreased.

I submit this, also, as Indiana's answer to the question under discussion.

The second question, "Toward what object shall we work in the future?" involves consideration of the progress that shall come from experience and the increase of scientific knowledge. What the one shall teach, or the other reveal, I do not pretend to foresee, but of this one thing I am confident, *we must work toward the elimination of dependency.* We may never actually reach that ideal state, but it should be our constant aim, and every step toward it will mean higher welfare and greater happiness for the people, and a lighter burden upon those who must pay the cost of State institutional life. Experience and the acquirement of greater scientific knowledge should lead to the prevention of insanity, of feeble-mindedness, of epilepsy and of tuberculosis, rather than to their cure. All our experience and all our knowledge should be centered in a persistent and continuing effort in this direction. The symptoms of mental collapse should be studied in the light of experience and acquired scientific knowledge until they are understood and its earliest development noted and checked in time to save the patient from the stigma of insanity and institutional life. Special training should be given to children not mentally capable of fitting into the regular curricula of the schools. The sources of feeble-mindedness, of epilepsy, and of consumption should be cut off. All official out-door relief should be administered in such manner as to save able bodied men and women from dependency and leave them opportunity to work and to become self-supporting and self-respecting citizens.

Public relief bestowed upon men and women able to work is a detriment to them and to the State. It tends rapidly to pauperize them, robs them of their self-respect and fastens them upon the State as dependents and permanent liabilties, whereas every self-supporting, self-respecting citizen is an asset and never a liability. An independent, virile citizenship is the State's greatest need. Without such a citizenship it cannot long continue. Our experience and knowledge should be turned to the discovery

and the application of the "ounce of prevention" rather than the "pound of cure."

But the legal fiction called the State cannot of itself achieve the results sought, the State can act only through its citizens. Whatever is done they must do. The command in the end comes back to them. The citizen must cultivate an intelligent interest in these great duties to the State. He must not be content to elect men to office and then leave all to them. He must require of them high and consecrated service. Aye! more, he must be willing himself to serve the State with consecrated, patriotic zeal, not for money, but for the public weal. The State has high claim upon his time, his experience, his judgment and his skill, and all these he must be willing to give without reserve. His interest must be alive, alert and quick to find expression in word and deed. He must demand laws which will protect the weak and stay the strong; check degeneracy and prevent disease, and the multiplied vices and tendencies which degeneracy and disease beget, and which produce dependence, destroy health, impair personal responsibility and break down moral fiber; and then he must insist upon the enforcement of these laws through storm and shine, through evil and good report, and if need be at cost of personal sacrifice. The call to civic duty is often as imperative as the call to military service and should be answered by the citizen with the same alacrity and exaltation.

XIII.

Statistics.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY OF THE INDIANA BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on Statistics has thought best not to enter elaborately into the discussion of this great subject, but rather to refer to some conditions and needs that present themselves — preferring to leave the theoretical questions for the present and present some practical features for the consideration of the Conference.

The collection of statistics means the gathering of facts; the preservation of accurate data; the compilation of definite information regarding the individuals, localities and conditions with which those engaged in the wide range of philanthropy have to deal. Without definite knowledge no scientific consideration of a subject is possible. We lack so much of the history of the past that we are seriously hampered in our present work. By reason of our comparative ignorance much of the good that might be done fails of accomplishment. Knowing this, we should be led to profiit by it to the end that the facts of the present may be preserved to help in present needs and to illuminate the future.

Only a few days ago a gentleman who has supervision over a group of institutions in one of our States, emphasized the difficulty of obtaining information by an experience of his own. He asked for reports. When one was not forthcoming from a certain institution he took the subject up personally. "Why," said the officer in charge, "what is the use of them? This institution has been in operation for fifty years and has never made any reports."

To the student the lack of material for accurate study in almost all fields of charitable effort comes with strong meaning. There has been some improvement in recent years, much of which is due to the influence exerted by this Conference and other or-

* See Appendix F, p. 620, for blanks, etc.

ganizations for special branches of charities. Here and there a State has led the way in some direction toward better things. One and another organization or institution has set a good mark in its efforts to gather and preserve data. But on the whole the investigator is depressed by the paucity of reliable statistics, the foundation upon which all good and enduring scientific work for the welfare of our fellow men must be based. Let any one try to cover any particular field of charities in his investigation and he will soon become impressed with the utter unreliability of the figures he gets and with his inability in certain quarters to obtain any information whatever. Even the census figures obtained in the past at great labor and expense cannot be accepted as conclusive. Such being the case it is very proper that this National Conference of Charities and Correction should have appointed a committee to give consideration to this subject. It is equally important that such a Committee be continued to endeavor to work out a plan, first for one phase of charitable effort, then for another, by which uniform data may be kept and uniform statistics may be gathered for the benefit of us all.

It is a hopeful sign to note that the United States Government has established a permanent Census Bureau. It promises our surest hope for active effort in this direction. Doubtless it will welcome such suggestions as this Conference may from time to time make, as the result of the careful studies of a Committee on Statistics framed in annual reports of practical character.

The value of accurate and uniform statistics must appeal in some way to every thoughtful person. We commonly recognize the value of statistics but often do not stop to think to whom they are valuable or how valuable they are. They are essential, or of great value to the following:

1. Institution Officers, — for proper administration.
2. Official Bodies.
   State Board and Legislatures, — for correct action and intelligent legislation.

3. Students of Special Classes
   - Such as Physicians — For the proper treatment of the Sick, Insane, Epileptics,
   - Sociologists and Educators — Feeble-Minded, Blind, Deaf, Offenders.
4. To the individual, — for their pecuniary or economic value in certain cases to complete family history; on account of adoption; for legal reasons; on account of inheritance.
5. To the whole people, — through proper interpretation, to the end that conditions may be understood, preventive means sought and applied and legislators properly informed.

It is unnecessary to discuss their worth before this body. For the benefit of any who have not given much attention to the importance of this work, it may be said that correct and uniform records lie at the foundation of modern charity work. They are essential to the proper efforts of every institution or organization. The hospitals for the insane need them in their diagnosis of the case of each patient; the schools for feeble-minded youth in the education or treatment of their children; the reformatory in the proper training of the young people sent to it; the juvenile court in the consideration of the cases of the children brought before it. Accurate records are of value to the children's home in determining the work to be done with the child and for information that may be valuable in after years; to the charity organization society to assure the just treatment of the poor and to guide in future work. Such statistics have a practical value in the actual work of the institution; and as a part of the sum of knowledge, the proper study of which will help solve questions of disease, degeneracy and dependence. They have a pecuniary value in certain classes of institutions in the settlement of legal questions relating to inheritance due natural or adopted heirs; they have a scientific value as they are accurate and uniform in supplying material for a general study of the many problems included in these phases of social life, the results

of which must contribute to the welfare of the unfortunates and the protection of society in after years.

One very practical work, then, that is greatly to be desired is to strive to secure greater uniformity in the records of institutions and organizations with particular reference to returns to be made to official bodies. Some forms are submitted, as suggestions for a simple, uniform system. They embody the results of many years' experience and study. One is for reports from institutions for the insane, feeble-minded, epileptics, other institutions for defectives and children's institutions. The other is for the industrial schools, reformatories and prisons.*

The principal features will be the same in all these reports, such as the name, age, sex, color, civil, mental and physical condition, date of admission and discharge from the institution. For reports from institutions for the insane, it will be essential to give also the form of insanity and the result of treatment. The reports from industrial and reform schools, reformatories and prisons should show in addition the crime, date and term of sentence, education, church, use of intoxicating liquor, character of associations, age on leaving home, trade, occupation when crime was committed, number of previous arrests and convictions and form of discharge, whether by pardon, parole or expiration of sentence. As much information as possible should be gathered of the home life of the prisoner. In addition to the names, nationality and physical and mental condition of the parents, it will be found valuable to know whether they are separated or divorced, their pecuniary condition, their church, whether they are defectives, criminals or drunkards. The reports of child-saving institutions, in addition to the elementary facts as to age, color, sex, should state the reason for the child's admission to the institution, whether because of abandonment by or the death or habits of the parents; should give the church of the parents and indicate also whether they are defectives, criminals, paupers or drunkards. The reports from such institutions should also state particularly the name, address and occupation of the person with whom each child is placed.

These reports having been made to the central official body,

* See Appendix F, pp. 620-625.

monthly or quarterly as required, there should be such a method of preserving the data as will enable the authorities to know the exact population of the institutions of the state and to study causes and conditions. No better system for this can be advised than the card registration. Cards uniform in size, with suitable headings and divisions, can be adapted to reports from different classes of institutions. As the reports are received, the information contained therein is transferred to the cards; these are arranged in alphabetical order and are ready at all times for such additional facts, concerning either the person himself or members of his family, as may be ascertained.*

In addition to the question of the preservation of proper uniform statistical data, may be also considered the effort to secure the adoption of a uniform system of financial reporting of State and other charitable institutions. No two States use the same system and it may be questioned whether some use any system at all. To any one who attempts a comparison of the cost of conducting State institutions this fact comes with great force as he begins to recognize that accurate results cannot be obtained. Take for instance the question of the per capita cost of maintenance. It is doubtful if any two States pretend to compute it upon precisely the same basis. Maintenance is sometimes used as synonymous with subsistence. Again, clothing is added, or possibly ordinary repairs. The proper way is to include everything necessary to maintain the institution and base the figures on the average daily attendance for the given period.

Likewise the population figures are given under several different classifications. Sometimes it is the enrolment, sometimes the estimated attendance, sometimes the actual number present.

It is suggested that the plan followed in some of our States be considered for adoption, both by the institutions and by the Boards which have their oversight. Under such a plan the term "maintenance" is used to include everything necessary to maintain the institution during the year. This takes in subsistence, clothing, fuel, administration, office and domestic expenses, stable, farm and grounds, insurance, library, beds and bedding, ordinary repairs. These may be grouped under five headings: "Cloth-

* See Appendix F, pp. 622, 623.

ing," "Repairs," "Administration," "Office, domestic and out-door expenses" and "Subsistence." Altogether they make the sum of maintenance, but any two or more can be taken together for such other information as is sought. Using this aggregate for a dividend, the average daily number present for a divisor, the quotient will be the per capita cost for any definite period taken. This method is at present in use with very satisfactory results in Ohio and Indiana.

It is suggested that it might be possible for this Conference to ask each State Board and each institution to give in its printed report one page each year to a table stating a few important items in accordance with an agreed form. Even if other forms were used it would not be a great trouble to compile these figures and give one short table of the kind indicated. Such information presented in a uniform manner would be of much value. The following form is suggested:

Number of inmates on a given date (date of end of fiscal year preferred).
Number received during last fiscal year.
Number discharged during same period.
Daily average attendance for same period.
Average number of officers and employes.

EXPENDITURES FOR GIVEN FISCAL YEAR.

Current expenses—					
1. Salaries and wages					
2. Clothing					
3. Subsistence					
4. Ordinary repairs					
5. Office, domestic and out-door departments (include all other ordinary expenses)					
Extraordinary expenses—					
New buildings, land, etc.					
Permanent improvements					
Grand total					

OUR STATISTICAL NEEDS.

BY JOHN KOREN, STATISTICIAN TO THE U. S. CENSUS BUREAU.

The workers in charities live for the most part in a statistical wilderness. Theirs is a world teeming with figures of the most varied assortment and generally in disjointed array. State boards, institution officials, private and public charitable organizations, in short, most agencies that deal with the dependent, defective and delinquent classes contribute annually their quota of figures into which supposedly have been translated the personal facts concerning the human beings under their charge, and many other data. And there are not wanting among us prophets who readily seize upon this chaotic mass embodied in reports labeled statistics, and having appropriated what meets their needs, proclaim their version or perversion of the figures as gospel truth. "Lo, behold," cries one, "there are ten million people in the United States in poverty!" "Aye," responds another, "I hear the wail of two million children who are in want." "My statistics prove," insists a third, "that the jails, almshouses, hospitals for the insane, and most other public institutions are chiefly populated by members of the immigrant races." "Regard crime," exclaims a fourth, "how it grows by leaps and bounds! Statistics show," and so ad infinitum. Any one who keeps abreast of current writings bearing on the social problems we are gathered to discuss, will admit that I have not overdrawn the picture of the uses to which statistics are being put in books, magazines and newspapers.

But if statistics are commonly abused, it too frequently happens that they are not available for use. Let me cite an instance of recent experience. In my own state of Massachusetts we have lately awakened to the necessity of providing industrial training for the adult blind; and the first question raised was naturally, how many such are there? Neither the Federal census nor the state census could supply an adequate answer despite many enumerations and the existence of certain so-called statistics of the blind. A special inquiry had to be undertaken before this single but all important fact could be ascertained.

Not long ago a foreign official requested statistics showing the number of persons in the United States supported through

public outdoor and indoor relief. He seemed greatly astonished at the reply that the facts are beyond any man's ken. "Then," said he, "it presumably is impossible to learn the number of destitute children cared for by public and private agencies." Again the confession had to be made that even in a comparatively intelligent state like Massachusetts, no one can advance more than a rough estimate of the number of destitute children who are taken in hand by some organized agency in the course of a year. There are endless examples of this sort showing the lack even of the facts that are necessary for a quantitative measurement of the problems that are our immediate concern.

There is perhaps a general agreement among us about the desirability of quantitative measurements of paupers, destitute children, the blind, deaf-mute, feeble-minded, insane, the extent of the crime movement, etc. But there is just as general a lack of appreciation of a knowledge of facts translated into figures (which we call statistics) as a means of solving problems in philanthropic work and removing practical obstacles. The prevailing feeling is that statistics are for students, not for the every-day worker in charities and correction. Such a feeling would have a semblance of justification were the so-called every-day workers not at all concerned with the formulation of policies, or if they were relieved altogether from the necessity of a patient investigation of the results of policies, which can only be obtained by aid of statistical inquiry. Let me illustrate what I mean by an example. Nearly every state has specific legislation concerning the distribution of outdoor poor relief. But in how many places is it known with what results the laws or policies operate? They have found out in Indiana. Consult the last bulletin of its State Board of Charities and you will discover a careful statistical study of the operation of the township relief system, which demonstrates beyond peradventure the wisdom of that model law, for it has brought the hoped-for results — a gradually diminishing number of applicants for outdoor relief, and a correspondingly diminishing burden of cost. It is a fine example of a rational application of statistical methods to a problem of practical charity.

Now I submit that there is scarcely any form of charitable or correctional activity of a general nature that without serious detriment can forego statistical consideration, both as to the soundness of the underlying policy and the value of the methods

applied, which are shown by the results. You cannot legislate wisely, nor can you be sure about the practical application of any legislation, unless, in the first place, you build upon the facts of past experience, and, in the second place, test results of the present in the light of properly compared facts. Is not this conspicuously true of such general problems as the training of the blind, the speechless, the feeble-minded, the care and education of destitute children, provision for the poor, the paroling of prisoners, the application of probation in adult and juvenile delinquency cases, the treatment of vagrants, etc. Both the theory and practice that mark our advance in these matters have only been evolved through a compilation and study of past and present facts embodied in statistical form. Whether always consciously or not, we are continually building, as well as preaching, upon a statistical basis.

If these statements apply to the general problems within our field, they are no less in point as regards the practical matters that occupy institution officials, the directors of charities, in short, all who have responsibility for the material and moral well-being of their fellow-creatures. You have got to know about them; and unless you record in a systematic manner the facts you have ascertained, your own knowledge, however helpful to you, may not serve for the enlightenment and guidance of others.

A business man makes a careful inventory of his stock, and notes each fact that enables him to determine how his business affairs stand and what results he achieves. And unless he does so ,you certainly would not trust your own affairs into his hands. But are such methods less necessary in the work of charity and correction? To mention but one example: How can any agency devoted to child-saving act intelligently as regards the immediate needs of the child, unless action is based upon recorded facts regarding that child, its previous history, parentage, physical and mental characteristics, etc.? Or how can such an agency make sure of the results of its placing-out system, its custodial supervision and the like, except by a further systematic recording of the facts in each case? There is no need of multiplying examples.

The applicability of what I have said to nearly all our activities is pretty obvious. In fact, it may seem to some of you that I am pleading for elementary things that are conceded

by all. Yes, they are conceded in theory, but hardly in practice. It is painfully true that the records of a multitude of institutions and charitable or correctional agencies, are totally inadequate for a high order of practical work and impossible for purposes of comparative study. I have examined the records of thousands looking to both ends and know whereof I speak.

I am not asking that we all become statisticians, or even devote a considerable time to the collection of the raw statistical material. But I do enter an earnest plea for records that, firstly, may supply the basis of intelligent action of the most immediate kind, and, secondly, may serve as the basis for statistical compilation and study which are necessary to the larger consideration and understanding of our many problems.

There is a widespread feeling that it is primarily the business of the Federal and state governments to provide for our statistical needs. Unquestionably it is the business of the permanently organized Bureau of the Census for instance, to furnish quantitative measurements of the extent and movement of the various dependent, defective and delinquent classes. And the tardiness with which the government has entered systematically into this field of inquiry is not commendable. Congress is not easily persuaded of the utility of these things. Yet a beginning towards a more orderly survey has been made. If the plans now under consideration are carried out, all reasonable demands in this respect will be met. I say reasonable demands, because there are distinct limitations to what can be accomplished even by a resourceful government agency. There is much we should like to know that is not capable of statistical demonstration, and there are bounds to the expenditures that can be incurred.

How far the government can fulfill its mission as a purveyor of facts, depends not alone upon the intelligence of those in charge, and the extent of the appropriations, but first and foremost, upon the availability of statistical material. The Bureau of the Census cannot create statistics. It depends now and will always have to rely upon the extent to which data are available through the medium of those who in a public or private capacity are immediately charged with the care of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes. Whether it be a question of their number, personal facts concerning the special classes, the cost of charity and correction or what not — the success of inquiry along

the whole line depends upon the completeness and accuracy with which what I may call working records are kept. Until institutions and non-institutional agencies learn to keep systematic and somewhat uniform records, every attempt to collate data on a large scale will be sadly handicapped and in some respects impossible. If hundreds of agencies dealing with children cannot tell even the number admitted to their care, or how they have been disposed of, if many more prison-keepers do not even distinguish between the sexes of the persons committed in their keeping, how are the facts to be supplied? I am citing to you facts of experience. And when the question is of matters not of the most elementary character, when for instance we attempt to probe for causes, the situation is so much worse.

In order, then, to supply our obvious statistical needs, the beginning must be made, not by the Federal government or by state Bureaus, but by institutions, and all other private or public bodies concerned with one or other of the classes under consideration. If they will record the facts that are needed for their own guidance in an orderly and intelligent manner, the rest will be easy. It augurs well for the future that the National Conference has begun to agitate this subject of better statistics. If we can but be made to see what is lacking, it is easily within our powers to supply the needs. But it is a question of pulling together and doing much drudging and often — upon the surface — meaningless work.

SOCIAL STATISTICS AS PRESENTED IN THE REPORTS OF STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY DAVID S. SNEDDEN, PH. D., ADJUNCT PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS' COLLEGE, NEW YORK.

The writer, having had occasion to use the various reports of State Boards of Charities in statistical studies, has had suggested to him certain considerations in this connection which might be of interest. It is felt by all workers in the field of charity and correction that there is great need for more scientific description than is now obtainable. The quantitative study of social phenomena is attracting the attention of an increased number of students, and that study of social phenomena which

makes no attempt to deal with statistical and other measurements is deservedly in disrepute.

It must, of course, be admitted that anything like quantitative exactness in social science is yet almost impossible to obtain. Social science is yet young, much of it is still in the stage when rough estimate and ready generalization serves our purposes fairly well. Beyond this we find it difficult to go, in the absence of suitable means for gathering data, and with few good methods yet developed for classifying and studying the data obtainable. But it is desirable that every student should develop the spirit of seeking for scientific and accurate statement wherever that is possible, and candidly acknowledging the inadequacies of his method at whatever point they occur.

The object of this paper, it need not be said, is not to criticise the work of the various State Boards. Considering the conditions under which they have developed, the inadequate means and service at their disposal, the frequent lack of popular appreciation, and the absence of tried standards and methods in their field of endeavor, many or most of them have accomplished very remarkable results. Their annual or biennial reports have come to be valuable adjuncts to the work of the student of social science, and in a few states their reports have developed highly ingenious and instructive methods of presenting statistics.

But improvement is the order of the day. And improvement is partly obtained by pooling the results of the experience of many experimenters and students, and by taking from the common stock that which fits the needs and opportunities of the individual. From the study of the State Reports the writer has arrived at certain conclusions, which, whether they have worth or not, he is willing to present in the hope that they may at least contribute an impulse in the direction of the further study of this subject.

It is necessary at the outset to indicate what is one's conception of the purposes to be served by the reports under consideration. The writer believes that these reports should be organized primarily for the sake of the average citizen of the state in which the report is issued. The reports should serve first and mainly the interests of the public which is concerned with publicity regarding the wards and dependents of the state. Of secondary consideration are the desires of scientists and stu-

dents of social phenomena. It is certain, however, that those reports which most effectively meet the needs of high grade publicity, so far as legislator and citizen are concerned, will also largely serve the purpose of the investigator.

But in order that the statistics and other material collected by the state boards should serve the purposes of publicity, it is essential that they should be much more than mere collections of facts and items. The average citizen and the average legislator are busy men and frequently have not the ability to disentangle real information from masses of data. Statistical information must be classified, organized, and interpreted so as to present in a compact way the general facts that are of significance. It is well known that much of the success of modern business has been due to the almost marvellous advances that have been made in systematizing the keeping of accounts and the organizing of items so as to show obviously what is actually being done. More and more under the influence of State Boards and other agencies we shall take up the matter of "social book-keeping" and we shall find therein not less need for "system." Due to experience and study, a great variety of devices are being worked out which, intelligently used, will contribute to the kind of publicity which will result in a true appreciation, on the part of the citizen, of the work and results of the various public or semi-public institutions with which the state concerns itself.

The Report of the State Board should, therefore, be in the first place an exhibit of that part of the business of the state or local agencies of the state, which is concerned with dependency and delinquency; and it should be, in the second place, an exhibit of the needs of that business from the high standpoint of social welfare and efficiency. The report is a balance sheet and a prospectus. The assumption should be that the citizen and taxpayer, and through him the legislator are interested in having the state maintain on a high scale of excellence its public institutions; but that citizen and legislator should be made fully aware of the work to be done, and the character of the work already done.

Logically, the citizen is concerned to know who are the wards of the state, what the state is doing for them, and what are the results of the efforts of the state. For purposes of prac-

tical treatment, it might be better to further subdivide this classification, as follows: (1) The wards of the state, as received; (2) The machinery with which the state operates in the detention, support, care, and education of these wards; (3) The staff employed; (4) The finance or cost side; (5) Results accomplished. Under some of these topics, it is difficult enough to classify, organize, and interpret data; but it would seem desirable at every point to make the attempt.

As the Conference well knows, many of the states have made substantial advances in the matter of publicity regarding finances. In fact many State Boards were originally organized in the hope of bringing some system into a field where chaos had hitherto prevailed. I need not mention here by name the boards of certain states which have developed systems of presentation whereby the citizen can, almost at a glance, learn the significant facts regarding the expenditures of the state for the poor, the delinquent, and the defective. It is still true that the reports of many states make no such succinct showing and that it becomes very difficult for the interested person to fathom the situation. Every one, of course, knows that the effective presentation of statistics of expenditure, the kind of presentation which makes genuine publicity possible, is one of the most effective checks of corruption that can be devised. Greed and extravagance and incompetency, in most of the forms to be found in American life, can not thrive in the full daylight any more than can certain forms of malignant bacterial life.

But because so many of the states have made noteworthy progress in the matter of the statistics of the finances of institutions and because a discussion of that subject would be intricate, this paper will confine itself to the other topics indicated above.

First, as regards the number and character of the wards of the state. It is true that we now collect, and publish, in many states, certain collections of data regarding these. For example, race, color, religion, literacy, trade, nationality of parents, family condition of parents, offence, disease, etc. From the standpoint of the student, these collections are often serviceable, but they are seldom organized and presented so as to be significant to the active citizen. Totals here are so apt to be misleading that some

sort of interpretation of them would do much to prevent prejudice and misunderstanding. Note must be made of the fact, however, that considerable progress has been made in preserving and keeping statistics of the number of persons becoming beneficiaries or prisoners of the state. Many of the reports of the state boards are fairly good in this respect. It will be shown later that it ought to be possible to go much further in the matter of organizing this data.

Under the second head, the machinery by which the state accomplishes its charitable and correctional work, of course we know that the possibilities of accurate description vary. So far as state institutions are concerned, clearness is quite obtainable; but in many states where county or other local or private agencies serve the state, it is hard to obtain anything like satisfactory description. Certainly in this direction there is room for improvement.

Regarding the staff of any institution, it would be highly desirable if means could be provided whereby the citizen could be informed as to its essential characteristics. The number of staff, the ration to inmates, the special fitness for their work, the salaries, the length of vacation, the extent to which they derive their support from the institution — all these are facts which, intelligibly presented, would, in the long run, do much to inspire public confidence. At present most state reports have meagre information along this line.

There is, finally, the fifth field that I have indicated — that of results. Here, too, unfortunately, we have little of the kind of information which it would be well for the citizen to have. Where, as in a prison, the work of the state is practically that of detention, it is not difficult to indicate results. But where the state endeavors to upbuild the individual, as in reform schools, schools for feeble-minded, insane hospitals, out-door relief, and all the rest, it would seem desirable that statistics indicate what have been the results of the work. It is not here intended to criticize reports as they now exist; for it is well known that it is extremely difficult to measure results of, e. g. the work of reformatories. But it is believed that the future will see a greatly increased demand for this measurement and it seems well that we should think about it.

Since the writer's familiarity with the statistics of states lies chiefly in the field of reform school work, he will draw his illustrations largely from that department, justifying this on the ground that, in comprehensiveness of aim, the juvenile reform school is exceeded by no other state institution. Here is undertaken custody, support, and education in the broadest sense of the word. Furthermore, in this work it is of peculiar importance that data be obtained regarding the life of the child prior to his coming under charge of the state; and also, as to his career on leaving the institution.

In order to procure this data in the first place, it is necessary to preserve an individual record of the child as long as the institution has any connection with him. Into this card should be entered all relevant facts, not only connected with his commitment, but during his residence in the institution and his subsequent history. All things considered, it is possible that the scheme of card and envelope combined offer the best means of procuring and preserving this information, although many find the ledger form preferable. It seems to the writer that a committee could exercise much ingenuity in devising such cards for original entry, and that each institution should have its typical card. Where items in two or more institutions have the same purport, provision should be made that they would coalesce easily in final summation of records. What these cards of original entry should contain, of course, will be determined partly by the information which it may later be desired to assemble.

It will be easily observed that the facility with which all final organizing of statistics can be done will entirely depend upon the fulness and explicitness of the original entries. Granted good original entries, the rest of the work is comparatively simple, at least as far as the institution is concerned. Much interpretation may be done by the secretary of the state board subsequently. Consequently the scheme here proposed does not look to a great increase of the work of the institution. Naturally it will preserve many records for its own use; the object would be to procure such a system of book-keeping connected with its inmates, staff, etc., as now obtains in the better states with regard to financial items.

Data that should be presented in distributed form:

Ages of commitment or discharge.
Term of detention or support.
Salaries.
Period of residence in case of foreigners.
Earnings of inmates.
Term of parole and period before return.
Length of service of attendants.

Data which should be presented by the institution in correlated form:

Correlations of age and nationality;
age and offence
age and sex
nationality and offence
occupation and offence
age and education.
term of residence in this country and nationality.
a variety of correlations of paroles with conduct, etc.
behavior with offence, etc.

The following scheme shows what might be included under a statistical plan for showing the work of the state with regard the dependents and delinquents:

I.

People becoming public charges.

- No. received, etc. Totals for periods, localities; ratios same.
- Reasons for receipt. Total, groups, ratios for certain causes.
  - Correlations of reasons with age, nationality, etc.
- Ages on receipt, grouped. Correlations of age groups with literacy, family condition, trade, offence, etc.
- Nationality, distribution in this country, grouped.
- Religion.
- Family or parents. Nationality
  - Religion
  - Trade
  - Domestic or social condition
  - Relatives in institutions.
- (Ratios with population, etc. on census basis)
- Physical condition (grouped) (correlated).

II.

Work of public institutions or oversight.

- No. concerned. Periods grouped.
- Support, amount of; previous term concerned, grouped.
- Work in state service. Classified and grouped.
- Earnings, grouped.
- Health. Deaths, cases of sickness.
- Discipline. Grouped. Correlations.
- Education. Grades, kinds; grouped; and correlations.
- Cures.
- Trades learned. Grouping of kind and time practiced.
- Parole.
  - Number, grouped according to age; destination; etc.
    - Correlated with term, behavior, educational advance.
  - Recommitments. Grouped by causes, term of parole, etc.
    - Correlated with age, term of detention, etc.
  - Condition of paroled, grouped by years paroled.
    - Reduced to ratios, etc.

Staff.

- No. of staff. Ratios to inmates, of sex and other groups.
- Training of staff, grouped.
- Length of service, distributed.
- Salaries, distributed.
- Length of vacation or other relief from service.
- Working inmates.
  - Classification by service, time, etc.

Results.

- No. discharged, released, with groupings.
  - Correlations with term of commitment, age, etc.
- Period supported, confined, distributed.
- Disposition — parole, cured, self supporting, etc.
- Results of institution work.
  - No. and time supported.
  - No. and time confined.
  - No. and education effected.
  - No. and measure of behavior, correlated with time away from state control.

For special purposes it may be necessary to provide additional special headings like "Movement of population" compiled from several of the above; or comparative tables showing differences or likenesses in various institutions.

It will be noted that all groupings and correlations in the above have to be made at the point of original entry; while percentages, averages, etc., may be made elsewhere. Therefore to

obtain groupings or correlations, it is necessary to provide blanks in which the entries can be transferred from the place of original entry. From the figures thus obtained, of course, the state office may make graphic showings of any sort.

In the above classification the finance and "plant" side of the work is omitted, because the matter of securing and arranging statistics of them is something with which state and business departments are usually quite familiar. Further work along this line should be put into the hands of expert accountants. It is possible, indeed, that some study should be made of the equipment of institutions, apart from their value in terms of dollars and cents; that is, with reference to their capacity to perform the work expected. For example, the efficiency of trades work is very dependent on the equipment available with which to do that work, and this cannot be expressed merely or mainly in terms of its cost or inventory value. This subject deserves treatment by itself.

The devices by which statistical data may be grouped for the purpose of expressing significant facts are many, and each has its own place of maximum service. Totals, of course, are the primitive and most available form. Totals of items of any sort are suggestive, but, of course, do not make comparison possible. Any worker with statistical information knows how readily all but careful workers are to draw hasty conclusions from totals. For example, the numbers of those belonging to races, religious faiths, various localities, etc., are, in themselves, liable to wrong inference.

The second statistical device, then, is the reduction of totals to ratios by means of which comparisons can be made. It seems to me that there are numerous ways in which ratios can be made use of for popular education in the field of charitable and correctional work; but the reductions will have to be made by the state office. At the state office, for example, will be available the census figures for the populations of various localities; for those of religious faiths, nationalities, ages, etc.; for the assessed valuation of property in various localities; and other facts and statistical foundations which can be made the bases for legitimate comparisons. On these bases comparisons can be made of one locality with another in ratios of crime, dependency, amounts expended, etc. At some extra expense for printing these may be

presented in graphic fashion as was done by the Indiana State Board in its report for 1904 in showing proportions of persons receiving out-door relief. Percentages, of course, can frequently be made a convenient means of expressing ratios.

For many purposes in popular statistical presentation the average of a group of items has been much used; but it is a fact that statisticians object, except in certain cases, to the use of the average because of its misleading character. Of course the average is better than the statement of one or two items entering into an enumeration. For example, to have the statement of the number of inmates in an institution or receiving relief at two different dates is not so satisfactory as having the average number for the entire period. But in such matters as term of sentence, term of detention, term during which relief has been received, age of commitment, salaries paid, education of inmates, length of service of attendants, etc., it can be easily seen that the average itself is by no means a satisfactory description.

Hence, for items of this character, it is highly desirable that a system of grouping be employed. These groupings can be either in totals or percentages, and will certainly tend to convey a much more accurate description of facts and prevent misapprehensions.

It will be noted that groupings or distributions will have to be made by those who first organize the original data of the work. The school, prison, or other institution concerned with the original data can easily do this from the cards or other primary records if appropriate blanks are provided.

The same is true of the next statistical device which I have to describe and which, in some forms, is familiar to all. I mean the correlation table. In this, of course, the attempt is made to describe two sets of facts in relation to each other, using either whole numbers or ratios. We thus relate age with sex, age with offence, with term of sentence, nationality, etc. We relate nationality with educational attainment, offence, term, discipline, rank, term of relief, etc. We relate age with educational status, educational status on entering with the same on leaving, etc. In dozens of other ways we find the correlation table shedding light and helping to the understanding of social facts which otherwise remain obscure.

I am well aware that all of the above methods are more or less in vogue among those who prepare the statistical information contained in the state reports. But I do not feel that the various devices (and others that might be described) are used with as much system and consistency as is desirable. The objection that they are more costly is invalid in many cases, especially where provision can be made for satisfactory handling of data at the point of original entry. I think we must all agree that every possible effort should be made to induce sheriffs, poor-house wardens, the superintendents of institutions, and all other first-hand workers to provide fairly full and accurate social data of their work. I realize that the first great need is for accurate information in financial matters; but, apart from the importance of the social data in itself, a full and complete enumeration and organization of this is often essential to an understanding of the financial facts.

So much for what seems to me to be a realizable ideal. But how shall it be realized? The writer has no justification, in this matter, for giving suggestions; but, for the sake of starting the question, he will venture two.

In the first place, in the matter of financial statistics, it seems highly desirable that each state work out its own plan, borrowing as freely as it can from the experience of other states. It is doubtless true in this matter that each state board is wrestling with its plans for state uniformity, devices for genuine publicity, etc. But in reference to the matters discussed above, there seems to be little reason why national uniformity should not, at least partially prevail, as indeed it now does in some essential respects. But, whereas in financial matters, it may be desirable to have uniformity among various institutions, in the matter of social data there should be several schemes to fit the various classes or kinds of institutions concerned. In other words, a well worked out scheme for preserving and interpreting data for poor relief would have few factors in common with an excellent scheme for describing the social work of a reform school. Hence it seems to the writer that the national conference or its sections might well have special committees at work on statistical plans for the various classes of institutions under consideration, each directed

to present plans for organizing under some such general plan as that above suggested, the lines of social data and plans for obtaining it, which the public should have. Such committees would work out blanks for original entry, blanks for periodical summation of data, and plans for the use of the state or central office in organizing and interpreting the same. Not the least important goal to be aimed at here would be brevity, conciseness, and expressiveness. Very often there is a tendency in national and state reports of all kinds to simply mass figures, leaving the inquirer to search for the facts therein concealed. Something better than this is coming in theese departments of publicity, I am sure. Those who have had occasion to refer to the last (1905) report of the United States Commissioner of Immigration will surely remember many remarkable examples of the success of that report in making statistics express facts and conclusions. I do not vouch for the correctness of these conclusions; I simply refer to the method employed. Whatever facts and conclusions State Boards of Charities and Corrections have to present to the public, they have every reason to present them so that they may be most easily received and understood.

Finally, these committees should have time to counsel with experts and to take all necessary steps to devise effective and fairly permanent plans. For this purpose, like all such committees, they should be continued for several years. Their presentments, published in the proceedings of Conference, would surely soon set the standard for local reports and for state reports.

Two methods of attack on this problem are proposed. Assuming that the goal to be aimed at is state uniformity for financial statistics, uniformity to be with reference to keeping accounts of various expenditures for institutions; and national uniformity for all social statistics whose enumeration and interpretation are not directly affected by state laws; we have then to consider the means by which this may be attained.

It would be possible, in the first place, for the National Conference of Charities to appoint statistical committees to work on this matter, each committee to be composed of specialists in the various subjects. Or it might be best to have a small committee of experts to deal with the subject as a whole, each

special department providing one of two practical men who could contribute their practical experience. Such committees should be continued for years, slowly accumulating material and reporting on the same until the goal of compactness, right choice, etc., had been reached.

STATISTICS OF DEPENDENT FAMILIES.

BY LILIAN BRANDT, STATISTICIAN OF THE NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.

When Hilaire Belloc was nearing the end of his pilgrimage to Rome he broke his fast one morning in an inn of which he has nothing to say except this:

"I do not pretend to have counted the flies, though they were numerous; and even had I done so, what interest would the number have, save to the statisticians? Now, as these are patient men and foolish, I heartily recommend them to go and count the flies for themselves."

Dr. Crothers, in his invaluable treatise on how to reason fallaciously, speaks of statistics as the most useful artificial fertilizer for the product known as fallacies. He says that there is no difficulty in using statistics if the grower is content with arguments of the fallacious order; no particular care is needed in their application; any man who can handle a pitch-fork can do all that is required. "I have seen," he adds, "astonishing results obtained in this way." So have we all.

These two gentlemen, litterateurs and philosophers both, have indicated the reasons for the popular feeling about statistics. This indispensable method of acquiring knowledge is in disrepute because of the statisticians who have sometimes been merely "patient men and foolish," stultifying the statistical method by counting up things whose number is of no consequence, and have been frequently cultivators of fallacies, handling their material, after they have collected it, in the manner indicated by Dr. Crothers.

Before this body, however, it is hardly necessary to enter a

plea for statistics, even when they are called by their own malodorous name. If it is true that "a well-bred person never insists on facts," then social workers of to-day must endure the imputation of ill-breeding, for insistence on facts is the fundamental characteristic of modern philanthropic method. And individual facts are the raw material of statistics. They become statistics after they have been counted up and compared. We have come to realize that these simple arithmetical processes are required to correct impressions which are "the sum of our individual thrills" about general conditions, just as we realized long ago, with more effect, that our impression of an individual woman, calling at the office, requires to be corrected by seeing her in her home and talking with her relatives, friends and employers. We have realized this; it has been said again and again in the last twenty-five years, at these meetings; but we have not gone far in putting our theory into practice. In the case of dependent families, especially, though we have done much in the way of collecting individual facts, it must be admitted that we have been singularly indifferent about turning those facts into statistics.

To the National Conference, without doubt, is due the credit for such concerted effort as has been made. In 1888 the "National Statistical blank" was adopted. This was a most important achievement: it designated certain facts, such as age, conjugal condition, nationality and literacy, as significant in forming an idea of dependent families; it provided a classificaton of "causes of distress" which has become classic; and above all, its adoption was a formal declaration that uniformity in statistics about dependent families was so desirable that an attempt would be made to secure it. Its influence in this direction may be seen in the annual reports of the Charity Organization Societies to-day, most of which use the headings decided on for this blank, or its revision in 1898, — not always, however, with the same interpretation.

Under the able handling of Dr. Warner, a thorough analysis of the information entered on these blanks was made in 1894. Dr. Warner, it is safe to say, got out of the figures all there was of significance in them, and the conclusions he drew about the characteristics of dependent families have stood the test for twelve years. Nor has his discussion of the causes of poverty, in this connection, been surpassed since, but it is the discussion that

is valuable, not the statistics which gave him a starting point for it.

From the beginning the movement for intelligent charity has been characterized by a burning desire to get at the causes of poverty, and the early interest in statistics of dependent families, when this blank was adopted, was due to the belief that they would show forth, in their true proportions, all those human traits and social conditions which are responsible for dependence. We are still hoping for this, but we have changed our ideas as to the methods by which it can be done. It is a most ungrateful duty to criticize what was better planned than we could ourselves have planned it at the time, but nevertheless it must be said that most of us have come to see that the old method of studying causes of poverty was an unfortunate one. The method consisted in tabulating the opinions of a large number of charity workers as to what was the cause of poverty in a large number of individual cases. It was unfortunate for two reasons: First, because it meant reliance on opinions, not on facts; and second, because the burden of deciding whether it was intemperance, lack of work, unwise philanthropy, inefficiency, or illness, in a given case, that brought the family to dependence, and the conviction arising that the decision could not be of much value, did much to make statistics in general hateful to charity workers, while the only discernible advantage was the discipline it afforded individuals. We are no less interested now in the causes of poverty, but we believe we shall learn more about them by a careful study of the conditions that are found in dependent families than by registering opinions as to which one of those conditions is responsible for the family's inability to support itself.

The primary object in collecting statistics of dependent families is, therefore, to get facts about the characteristics and circumstances of the family. There is another object, however, which deserves equal emphasis, though it is only beginning to receive it. It is only by statistics that we can study the results of our work, testing our methods by the changes which they have effected in the characteristics and circumstances to which they have been applied. The subject matter, in brief, of these statistics should be

(1) A description of the families when they apply for help;
(2) An account of the "treatment" given;

(3) A description of the families when the period of care comes to an end.

It remains to discuss ways and means. The first step in an investigation, the collection of material, we can pass over with a word, for that is already provided for by the case record. If the case record tells the whole story the material is collected. For the next step, the preparation of the material for study, modern business devices have furnished machinery that is a vast improvement on the unwieldy statistical blank. A card catalog, containing a separate card for each case, is ideal for statistical purposes. It has advantages that compensate for its cost. It is equally applicable to the work of large societies and small. It affords, in small compass, information about the work of the current year which is not obtainable in any other way in a large society with branch offices, or in any society which has under care more cases than can be kept in one person's head. By different colored cards, by tabs along the top of the cards, and by the many-colored little metal signals that can be slipped on the edge of them, any desired classification can be carried out, so that the tray of cards gives, almost at a glance, an accurate impression in regard to a number of points.

The United Hebrew Charities of New York was the first society, as far as I know, to use such a card catalog, putting the system into operation in October, 1904. The system adopted by the New York Charity Organization Society in January, 1905, and used with increasing satisfaction of its value ever since, is as follows:

The statistical card catalog contains a card for every family that has been under active treatment during the current fiscal year. It is concerned only with the current year.

The cards are kept in two files. In one are the current cases; in the other, the cases that have been under care at some time during the year but have been "closed," because no further assistance is needed or because it seems that further action will be fruitless. The current file contains on any day the families under care of the ten districts; the number of cards in it fluctuates according to the season of the year, from a minimum of about 700 at the end of the summer to a maximum of twelve or thirteen hundred in the late winter. The closed file is empty on October 1, the beginning of the year, but the number of cards in it

increases steadily through the year, until on September 30 theoretically, (though actually it is a week or two later) it contains some two thousand, the total number of cases that have been under care, and closed, during the year.

The cards are of two colors, white and yellow: a yellow card indicates that the case was already on record in the Registration Bureau when the present application was made; a white card is used for a new case.

Each file contains both white and yellow cards, and in each file they are arranged in numerical order according to case numbers.

There are tabs along the upper edge of the card indicating the district in which the case is treated.

Colored signals, clipped on the card, are used as follows:

Black	to indicate a widow.
Black, marked with "M"	to indicate a widower.
Black, marked with "D"	to indicate a deserted family.
White	to indicate a case of tuberculosis.
Blue	to indicate a sickness other than tuberculosis.
Red	to indicate incapacity of head of family by old age
Green	to indicate that the head of the family has been in New York less than five years.
Yellow	to indicate that the family is receiving a pension through the Society.

This category will be changed from time to time as new interests develop, and it can be modified to reflect local interests anywhere else, as, indeed, can all the other features of the system.

The card itself was designed with the idea of providing for a picture of the family at the time of application for help, the amount, kind, and sources of the help secured for it, and the condition of the family when the case was closed. The facts about the circumstances and composition of the family all refer to the time of application, — the latest application, if it is a recurrent case. This is a most important feature of the plan, for it is at this period in the family's history, when it asks for help, or

is referred by some one interested, that these facts are significant for our purposes.

These facts about the family at the time of application — the address, number of rooms and rent, the age, occupation, and health of the members, the length of time both heads have been in the United States and in the city, their nationality and church connections — are entered on the card in the district office, within a few days after the case is opened. The card is sent immediately to the central office, where it is placed in the file of current cases. When the case is closed the card is taken out of the current file, the facts about treatment, the circumstances of the family at the time of closing (summarized in the "Reason for closing") and any additional information about conditions at the time of application which have come out in the course of the district's acquaintance with the family, are added to it, and it is filed among the closed cases. All of this work, when the case is closed, is done by some one in the central office, from the case record. It should be noted that the district office is asked to supply nothing that is not already on the case record when the case is taken up in the district or is not naturally found out in the first or second interview. The effort has been to reduce the work done in the district office to the minimum, and to ask only for such points as are generally agreed to be useful, in some way or other, in treatment. There is no need at present to attempt to collect, for statistical purposes, any information about these families, however interesting it might be, that is not essential either to an intelligent understanding of their needs or an adequate record of how those needs are met. A satisfactory case record, in other words, contains all the information that we need for our statistical work at present. Some case records may not be satisfactory for our purposes, but in that case they are not satisfactory for the purposes for which they were created. Incidentally, more thorough statistical work should react to improve the case records.

It has been felt that in studying dependent families, families in which there is something abnormal, some defect in character or in environment, there is danger of losing sight of the normal elements. We are primarily concerned with finding out what conditions are wrong and correcting them, and our records of what we accomplish are apt, through hesitancy or modesty, to fall short of registering the whole truth about encouraging

factors. We expect improvement. We do not expect women to come into our district offices in March, as one did in New York this year, and complain: "Yez took my case up for improvement last November and yez havent improved it yet." And we take virtue for granted, particularly the positive virtues, though we are rather apt to mention that a man does not drink or steal. Our case records do not, to the extent that they might, bear "frequent and emphatic testimony to the good qualities of the poor, to their fortitude, their faithfulness, to their heroism and their charity," though we do realize that it is "because of the reality of these qualities that we are justified in maintaining a hopeful attitude towards our relief problem." In order to correct this tendency to present statistics that give only an impression of a mass of illness, inefficiency, idleness, failure, and misfortune, the experiment is being tried in Boston and New York of requesting district agents to call attention, on special blanks, to positive gains. The blank used in New York is in the form of a memorandum card to be filled out when the case is closed and sent in with the case record. It is in two parts, one for recording improvement "traceable in part to the action or influence of the C. O. S.," and the other for giving examples of admirable traits in the family. The blank reads as follows:

(Surname) (No)

Shows improvement traceable in part to the action or influence of the C. O. S. as follows:

I. *Character:
   1. Saving.
   2. Industry.
   3. Judgment.
   4. Temperance.

II. *Health of:
   1. Father.
   2. Mother.
   3. Children.

III. *Environment:
   1. Removal to better rooms.

   Other improvement due to efforts of family.

IV. Any other form of Improvement:

*Indicate by a check the kind of progress made and make a short statement concerning it.

Give any examples of unusual unselfishness, perseverance, courage, charitableness, industry or wise management on the part of the family.

Signed: .....

The next step, after collecting the material and recording it in a convenient form for study, is to study it. Dr. Crothers gives clear directions for this part of the work: "When the contributions are received, assort them, putting those that strike you as more or less alike in long, straight rows. Another way, which is more fancy, is that of arranging them in curves. This is called 'tabulating the results.'" There is not much more to be said. The results must be tabulated, and tabulated as "thoroughly" as Dr. Crothers advises. The value of the results, if the material is what it should be, depends on the discrimination of the person who does this part of the work. To classify the facts and to arrange them either in straight rows or curves, is not hard work, as the old man said who was sorting apples, but it is "a great strain on the judgment," and it requires a great deal of time and patience and common sense, and an open mind, — more of all these, and far more general and professional knowledge and ingenuity than have yet been brought to bear on the undertaking. Many statistical inquiries break down just at this point and good investigations fail of any value (except to the investigator) because they are not studied.

Finally, if the statistical work is to justify itself, the facts which stand out as a result of the study must be used. Their first use is to give the individual workers in the society a background for their own work: showing them what is exceptional and what is typical, confirming some impressions, correcting others, suggesting new ones, and placing each dependent family in its proper relation to the problems which the society is trying to solve.

The second use is to represent the work of the society to the public. The public is avid of figures, in spite of its distrust of them. It clamors for them and quotes them, while it laughs at them. "We have sold our birth-right," complains one who contends that imagination is a lost faculty, "for a mess of facts." Any thing that looks like "a mess of facts" is acceptable to the public, and it depends on us to see to it that the statements published in that guise are what the children call "true facts."

The third use which our statistical studies must serve is to improve our case-work. Whether they do this or not depends partly on the way in which the studies are made, but chiefly, I think, on the practical worker. "If solid conclusions, that head

well, are expected," to quote Dr. Crothers once more, "only experts of good character can be trusted to do the work." But conclusions the most solid, achieved by experts of the best character, can have an influence on methods of dealing with dependent families only if they are studied and applied by practical workers. On the practical workers, too, rests the responsibility for criticizing the conclusions reached by the statisticians, testing them by practical experience as well as allowing them to correct the impressions arising from that experience, and suggesting new lines of study. It might be well to require such criticism in writing, if it is not voluntarily offered, from every district agent and visitor in the society; and if general secretaries, their assistants, and heads of departments do not feel their responsibility in this direction sufficently to offer their criticism voluntarily, it should be required of them by their directors.

* * * * * * *

The annual report of every society which cares for dependent families should contain a statistical study of the families dealt with during the year. This study should discuss the volume of the year's work, the kinds of cases dealt with, the work done for them, and its results; it should call attention, from year to year, to changes in the relative proportions of different kinds of dependence, and to such changes in social and economic conditions in the city as find reflection in the society's work. It is hardly necessary to mention that it is extremely desirable that in all these reports there should be sufficient uniformity to permit of comparisons, of one society with another and of one year with another in the same society. From time to time, as certain kinds of dependence assume importance, for one reason or another, special studies of such classes of cases should be made; as has been done, for example, in regard to deserted families, by the Boston, Philadelphia, and New York societies; and is proposed in regard to tuberculosis cases in New York in the near future. The circumstances which determine the choice of subjects for these special studies may be either an actual increase in the number of cases of a particular type, as was true to some extent of desertion, or it may be due, as in the case of tuberculosis, to an increase of intelligent interest in a particular type.

This discussion has dealt mainly with methods, because that seems the important part of the question at the moment. It has doubtless been made clear that the production of valuable statistics about dependent families involves expense. It is expense, moreover, which will not, in all probability, be compensated by economies suggested by the study, as is generally true in the case of a business. The suggestions are apt, on the contrary, to lead to more ample expenditure in other directions. It is reasonable to expect, to be sure, that the close scrutiny of the work will make it possible, if the scrutiny is what it should be, to discover the weak points in the personnel of the force, as well as in generally accepted methods, and thus to suggest a re-application of funds with better results. But in the main the justification for spending money on statistics of dependent families must rest on other than financial considerations.

The cost of the machinery for recording the information is a not inconsiderable item; a new supply of cards is needed every year, though the cabinet, or trays, and the metal clips require only an initial expenditure. The most serious item, however, is for services. In the New York society the entire time of one person is occupied in keeping the files in order, reading the closed cases, and assisting in the tabulation, and most of the tabulation and study is done by another.

If paid services must be relied on, this may seem a formidable amount to spend for this purpose; but might this not be a form of service particularly attractive and suited to volunteer social workers? Many college girls who are not fitted for friendly visiting would be glad to do the clerical work in the district offices, and it is conceivable that two or three might be found who could arrange a schedule, and keep to it, for the central office work. The analysis at the end of the year might be done by graduate students in a university, when there is one near at hand. Our chief hope for the special studies, if they are to be as frequent and as numerous as they should be, is in the university students. The study of deserters in Philadelphia, by Miss Helen Foss, and of industrial displacement in NewYork, by Francis H. McLean, are illustrations of what is possible from volunteer students.

However it is done, by paid employees or by volunteers, it

must not be undertaken lightly. Regularity, accuracy, patience, and interest are indispensable elements if this work is to justify itself. Its justification will rest on the increased efficiency which will necessarily result from our clearer understanding of what we are trying to do and whether we are doing it.

XIV.

Training of Social Workers.*

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, DIRECTOR OF SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL WORKERS, BOSTON, CHAIRMAN.

I have been asked as chairman to introduce the general subject. For this introduction, I alone am responsible.

Our subject is training of social workers. We are not to consider recent educational advances which serve merely to give some understanding of what social work is, or some general introduction to it.

Instruction in these subjects in several leading universities is increasing, as at Columbia, Harvard, the University of Chicago.

The course of lectures on subjects touching charity and correction offered in January by the State Board of Charity of New York, for the use of colleges, and the recent application in Illinois of civil service selection of employes of charitable institutions are noteworthy educational steps.

During the past year, Mr. James F. Jackson, superintendent of the Associated Charities of Cleveland, has had a study class, the instruction covering seven months, with daily direction in work in needy families, with a weekly lecture and prescribed reading. Membership was limited to college graduates.

As a means of training there will always be the apprentice method, the passing on to a new worker the knowledge gained by an older worker, in a particular part of the field. On this method there is nothing new to be said. The chief limitation, though the experienced worker be head of a social settlement, is that the new worker usually fails to see the field of social work from different points of view.

The most interesting new feature of training of social workers today is the schools for the particular purpose. At the National Conference last year, Professor Graham Taylor, for the first committee on training of social workers, reported the establishment of four schools in this country, in New York, Boston,

* Discussion on Training of Social Workers, p. 567.

Chicago, St. Louis, besides schools in London and Liverpool. The pioneer of all was the "summer school," a course of six weeks, opened by the New York Charity Organization Society in 1898. But distinctions must now be drawn in the use of the word "school." The New York summer school is now called the "summer session" of the New York School of Philanthropy. The Chicago Institute of Social Science announces a six weeks' course as its summer session. In Philadelphia, the college of the University of Pennsylvania has just opened a six weeks' course, judiciously titled "Preliminary course in social work." * Such brief courses are of great value, chiefly as introducing persons to social work or as quickening and broadening those who have been at work. The president of the Board of Directors of the St. Louis school, in answer to the list of questions sent out, says that he cannot answer any of the questions, "as our School of Philanthropy so far has been merely preliminary. We have had eight public conferences with lectures by distinguished men." This School has plans for development, but now it is a series of conferences, largely attended, with selected speakers and lists of selected reading for use at home. Such series of conferences are valuable in any community; but they are not, strictly speaking, schools for training. We use the word schools for systematic instruction with practice under direction for a considerable time. The methods used should approach those of a recognized professional school.

Our limited time allows only brief reports of the schools in this country which are really special schools, with fairly systematic instruction during an academic year. The Chicago Institute of Social Science is now, with a guaranteed fund for three years, under the financial administration of the Chicago Commons Association. Its Supervisory Council is made up of persons identified with the principal charitable and reformatory agencies in Chicago, the State Board of Charities, the Civil Service Commission, the Board of Education, and leading universities in Illinois and adjacent states. Its courses may be taken separately,

* The New York summer session meets five days weekly, and takes practically the working time of the students for lectures, visits and field work. In the Chicago summer session there are five hours a week in exercises and visits of inspection, one nearly every day, usually in the afternoon and evening. In the University of Pennsylvania course there are exercises on five afternoons, beside one visit, weekly.

each one requiring attendance once weekly in the afternoon or evening for a lecture and discussion. The instruction is given in part by regular instructors, in part by special lecturers. When courses are given by several lecturers, the Director attends each session and conducts the discussion. Visits are made to various institutions. Field work is voluntary. The fee for all courses offered during the school year, two or three exercises weekly and visits, is $25; for three courses registered at one time, $10; for one course, $5. This year, one student, a woman, a paid worker in a large charitable agency, has taken the entire course, six have taken considerable portions of the year — three of them teachers, two settlement workers, and a visitor for a large charitable agency. The attendance for the autumn quarter was 59, the winter quarter 53, the spring quarter 56. The total of individual students during the year was 91, 63 women and 28 men. They included 18 from the Young Women's Christian Association training school, 17 settlement workers, 13 business men, 11 workers in charity, 4 probation officers, 4 deaconesses, beside 4 University students and 3 Theological Seminary students. No aid in scholarships was given.

The Director, Professor Graham Taylor, writes: "At first the students came from the paid staffs of the charitable and reformatory institutions. But while they still constitute one-third of the student body, the remainder includes students preparing for various lines of social service, those connected with the management of institutions, and representatives of mercantile and manufacturing establishments, interested in the social organization of industry."

"While we had to make the courses so independent of each other that they could be taken singly, yet we have succeeded more and more in encouraging students to take all the courses offered during one quarter, and hope to gradually secure a majority of the registrations for the entire curriculum, covering nine months of the year." This year he can add, "The attendance has exceeded our anticipations both in numbers and representative character, regularity and diligent attention of the students."

The New York School of Philanthropy began its full-year work in 1903-1904, with afternoon and evening instruction. That year the registration numbered 159, mostly persons already at work. Its second year, instruction was given in the morning, and

was made much more ample and systematic. The exercises fill five mornings each week. Besides, a minimum of 180 hours of field work is required, of which one-third at least is in a district office of the Charity Organization Society. Each student must present a thesis upon some subject connected with a special line followed. At least one of the Directors is present at all exercises, with the aim of knitting together the various topics. This year, 1905-1906, the enrollment was 59. The students taking the full year course and receiving certificates were 24 women and 3 men; those doing partial work were 17 women and 4 men; beside 3 women who completed work begun last year, and 8 attendants on certain lectures. Eight women and 2 men, doing partial work, expect to finish the course next year. The average age was about 26 years. Of the full-course students, a very large majority expect to be paid workers, the others expect to be volunteers. Four men and one woman have been doing regular work during the school year for a society for organizing charity. "Among individual students, there is one woman journalist, who takes the lectures to inform herself more fully on social affairs that she may improve her newspaper and magazine work, another is a visiting nurse in the tuberculosis work of the Health Department, who wishes simply to improve her general knowledge of philanthropy, without any desire to change her occupation. One student took two groups of lectures as an equivalent of an equal amount of work in a college in the neighborhood, being part of her qualifications for a degree of M. A. One of this year's students, taking the full year's work, is the president of an Associated Charities in a near by New Jersey town. Several of the students are in regular residence at settlements; another, who took a part of the work of the year, is the head resident of a settlement in Brooklyn."

The fee for the full course has been $25. Next year it will be doubled. This year student aid to the extent of free tuition and one hundred dollars each, was given to nine persons, and free tuition to three others.

The New York School, established by the Charity Organization Society, received a year ago an endowment, yielding now over $11,000 a year. It is conducted by a committee, named the Committee on Philanthropic Education, of the Charity Organization Society, the presidents of the four leading charitable societies of the city and the president of Columbia University being

ex officio members. The Faculty Council consists of the Director and his associates, the chief executive heads of the leading charities of the city, and representative members of the faculties of several universities in New York and other cities, and others. The Director of the School is professor of social economy in Columbia.

The Boston School for Social Workers, established in 1904, is maintained entirely by Simmons College and Harvard University. It aims primarily, like the New York School, not so much to reach persons busy in social work already, as to draw into that work some of our able young men and women now going into other occupations; and it takes all or most of the working time of the regular students. It lays stress on practical work with two or more selected agencies, one being the Associated Charities, during the whole academic year. Each student makes a study of a particular subject, based on observation through the year. One morning weekly is given to discussion by the students of subjects covered by prescribed reading; two mornings are for informal discussion of practical problems of civics, or of treatment of various types of needy persons, or of management of institutions and agencies. The Director and Assistant conduct many of the exercises and are present at all, in order to knit the subjects together.

This year there have been 13 full-time students completing the year; 3 of them men; and one woman, who divides the work over two years, giving part time. Three others did full-time work during the first half-year. The average age was about 30. Besides, 10 women and 1 man, already workers, persons who can bring to the discussions experience of much value from their various fields of social interest, have attended two mornings weekly. Of the full-time students, about half expect to be paid workers, about half volunteers. The work of the School forms the last year of a four-year course in Simmons College for Women, leading to the degree of B. S. It is a double course in the Department of Social Ethics in Harvard University. The fee for the full-time workers is $100. This year student aid was secured for only one student, for one-half year tuition.

At none of these schools are there rigid requirements for admission, such as a college degree, yet there must always be some indication of fitness to profit by the opportunities offered.

At the Boston School, for example, of the full-time students, over one-half had studied at a college or theological school, and nearly all of these held degrees.

Considering the place of such schools in the training of social workers, I venture in conclusion a few suggestions. First, — a truism applying here as everywhere — the part which the schools are to play will depend chiefly upon what they are; and what they are will depend chiefly on the possibility of getting the right directors and instructors.

We must not expect from such schools too large results too soon. The expression "trained worker" is nowadays being used rather glibly. I have heard it used at this Conference as if training could be had by some brief process, as immunity from disease may be had by inoculation. Preparation for social work will largely come, of course, in observation and experience, in purposeful, thoughtful living. But a real school, with at least one academic year of systematic instruction and practice will help a young man or woman of reasonable parts and promise to economize in preparation. To say the least, it will help him to save time, and will spare needy persons unnecessary experimentation.

What should be the chief aim in such a school? Not to specialize highly for service in any particular kind of agency. There may be some specialization, especially in the field work, but the chief aim should be to give to each student a view over the whole field of social work. One year of systematic study and observation is only too short a time to get even a good bird's-eye view of the field. Yet I would not favor today a longer course. These schools should be for mature students. Most mature students wish soon to get to work, many of them must soon get to work. Technique in any part of the field is best learned by speedy application in it under the best specialists. That must be gotten chiefly after leaving the school. What the school can give in one year is, beside the bird's-eye view, an abiding conviction of the value of technical knowledge; some insight into what technique in social work is and means; and the right relation of technique, of the little things, to the larger tasks.

If young persons looking to social work can spare more than one year before taking it up, I urge them, as the best preparation for our special school, to continue in or go into a college or university, to study under able guides such subjects as economics,

psychology, physiology, pedagogy, literature. Our special school should not try to duplicate such instructions. We should aim to do well what is not done already; especially to provide more systematic instruction by a few selected teachers, together with more opportunities for continuous practical work under interested direction.

Why are we not getting more young men and women, especially from our colleges and universities? One reason given is that young men especially cannot afford to enter philanthropic service. True, there are not now many places which pay more than plain living salaries. What we hope is that more adequate salaries will be paid as more young men and women of ability coming to the work with the spirit of a calling, show that the best can only be done by able service, and claim for such a reasonable pay. Let us remember, too, that these schools exist to teach and train not merely those who will be paid officials, but those who will be thoughtful, efficient volunteers. On the volunteers depend much of the selection of the right paid officials and the right standard of pay. Another reason suggested is that most young persons probably regard philanthropic work as caring for those who are in one or another way defective, who are mostly helpless and hopeless. There is as yet little application of the significance, the possibilities of real social work. Let us make this clear in our own mind and in the minds of others. Social work is not merely taking care of this or that needy person or any number of needy persons, however widely we interpret the word needy. It is also the effective use of all possible forces in legislation, administration, general measures for education, to prevent need. It would do away with ills that oppress many, would bring opportunities to many. It involves a work of statesmanship, in aim and method. Such conceptions of social work should appeal to the best young men and women.

XV.

Workingmen's Insurance and Old Age Pensions.*

REPORT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEE.

The Committee Report was presented by Mr. Charles R. Henderson, Chairman. He introduced it as follows:

The Committee on Workingmen's Insurance in relation to public and private charities was appointed at the Detroit meeting. It was the understanding that it was to report after a study of three years of this complicated and difficult subject. On account of the absence of the chairman from the country last year only a partial report was made. You will find papers by F. L. Hoffman and John Graham Brooks, members of the Committee, with some discussion, printed in the proceedings of last year. This year we have come to a tentative conclusion, and present therefore a report in a very brief and condensed form on the results of our study. This subject will be discussed during the coming week at the International Congress of Charities at Milan, Italy, the relation of workingmen's insurance to charity both public and private, being one of the five topics chosen for discussion by that body. That marks its importance in the estimation of the leaders of philanthropic enterprises in Europe. It is also a subject in the great National Conference of Charities in the empire of Germany and it is a frequent topic of discussion in France. At the International Congress in Scotland two years ago, on relief of needy families in their homes, the subject of old age pensions and insurance occupied a prominent place. It seems therefore fit that such a study as this should be presented. It will be understood, as has already been suggested, that our conclusions are only partial. We present such light as we have been able to gain up to the present hour, and then we look forward. This conference has never been charged with simply marking time. One of our presidents, Mr. Robert Treat Paine, once said in substance: "Let us have a year of prophecy; let us not merely look back; let us not merely study the present; but let

*Discussion on Workingmen's Insurance, p. 596.

there be the spirit of onlook, outlook and helpfulness, a religious spirit of trust in the power of goodness that leads us on." It is somewhat in this prophetic spirit that we take up and introduce a new topic into the discussion of the National Conference of Charities.

REPORT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEE.

While it is well known that the United States is the most backward of modern nations in providing industrial insurance, it should not be admitted that we have not made progress in the right direction, and some of the experiments promise to have instruction for European peoples. The principle of insurance as an economic protection to the family in case of the incapacity or death of the chief breadwinner of the family, has the approval of many of the most sagacious and successful leaders in business, and this in spite of their belief that the management of insurance companies has been in only too many instances extravagant and corrupt. This approval is shown in the most practical manner by the numbers of policyholders and the enormous amounts of insurance in force.

In 1904 there were in force in "ordinary insurance" companies 5,507,759 policies, to the amount of $10,412,078,338.

Some of the most competent leaders in American enterprise have not only approved the principle of insurance in the conduct of their private affairs, but they have already established and successfully conducted plans of insurance for their employes. In the first rank we mention the relief departments of several great railroad corporations. Mr. Riebenack, comptroller of the Pennsylvania Railroad, has made a valuable study of this subject and summarizes the result by saying: "The nine purely relief department roads hereinbefore discussed represent an aggregate of 31,000 miles of roadway, or about 15 per cent. of the total railway mileage of the United States, with employes numbering 318,000, or about 24 per cent. of the total number of railway employes in the country, and an insurance membership of 206,000 employes, or practically 65 per cent. of the total number of employes identified with the service of the roads involved. The combined average annual disbursements of these departments aggregate about $2,230,000, while their combined disbursements since organization approximate $37,150,000." There were in

1903 sixteen railroad companies paying pensions to 3200 pensioners who were retired on account of old age or incapacity to labor. Eight roads had set aside a fund of $600,000 for this purpose. About 500,000 employes were interested in this scheme. To these pension funds the employes are not asked to contribute.

We do not at this time venture on a criticism of these schemes, and we do not claim that they are beyond criticism or incapable of improvement; but it is certain that they have already diminished resort to charity in times of sickness and incapacity caused by accident. Workingmen's insurance is no longer a merely European scheme; it is actually established in America and is rapidly advancing.

We have evidence that many employers in other vast industrial enterprises are developing similar plans for the protection of their employes.

The fraternal insurance societies annually collect and distribute vast sums for sickness, benefits and life insurance. The volume of reports entitled "Statistics Fraternal Societies" (1905) claims that these fraternal societies had insurance in force to the amount of $6,665,141,251. In the year 1904-1905 they paid death benefits of $64,322,892, and since their organization the societies have paid out $787,427,445. Thirteen societies which pay claims only for sickness had paid out since their organization $312,514,-193. The grand total paid out by fraternal societies has been $1,099,941,638.

Some of the trade unions in this country have organized and successfully administered schemes of providing sickness, accident, out-of-work and death benefits for their members. It has been found impossible to collect complete statistics of membership, dues, benefits and results of these schemes, although we have sought all available sources of information. But the reports of certain unions show what can be done and a few illustrations are cited.

The Cigarmakers' International Union of America has paid, during twenty-six years and six months, since the organization of its relief schemes, for sick benefits, $2,201,266.43; for death benefits, $1,514,525.99; for out-of-work benefits (a kind of unemployment insurance), $1,045,866.11. The Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners have paid out for sick benefits

(1860-1904), $3,446,465, besides "benevolent grants in distress," $233,170; for accidents, $335,825; death benefits, $617,905, and for old age pensions, $1,273,915. The unions of railway employes and many other like organizations have secured good results in this direction.

The New York Labor Bulletin of March, 1906 (p. 110) gives a list of the national trade union organizations of the United States, showing an average monthly membership in 1905 of 1,494,000 affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. These unions expended during 1905:

Death benefits	$742,421 23
Death benefits (wives)	24,800 00
Sick benefits	582,874 13
Traveling benefits	62,989 71
Tool insurance	5,180 41
Unemployed benefits	85,050 72
	$1,503,316 20

"These amounts do not include large sums expended by many of the local lodges or branches of national unions, of which no report is made to the national officers."

The five railway orders not affiliated with the A. F. L., Conductors, Engineers, Firemen, Switchmen and Trainmen, paid out in benefits, according to the last report accessible, $4,662,186.

The great industrial insurance companies collect and disburse almost fabulous sums among poor wage earners in this country.

In the year 1904 there were in the "industrial insurance" companies in force, 15,674,384 policies, to the amount of $2,135,859,103.

In this report we do not attempt the task of estimating the value of this form of insurance, but it is worth while here to point out the fact that these companies have demonstrated the universal need for industrial insurance and the readiness of poor people everywhere to make heroic sacrifices to make themselves independent of charity, especially at the time when they are compelled to bury their dead.

The industrial companies do not aim to provide sick benefits, accident insurance, nor old age pensions; and they, therefore, do

not profess to cover the entire field of workingmen's insurance. But the fact that their estimated expenditures for adult and infantile benefits are $30,000,000 annually is very significant.

The elimination of the misery resulting from chance in society is a mark of civilization. While societies once rose and fell in prosperity, there has been a steady decrease of vicissitude, of famine, of war, of plague, of all those general calamities that affect nearly all members of the community. The chance to the individual member of society has, however, in many ways increased. The old clan relations, the relations of status, of guild and community life in the Middle Ages, gave some protection to the individual and mitigated individual chance misfortune. But in many ways the chance of evil to the individual has been increased by the substitution of competition and the breaking down of the old protective institutions.

Workingmen's insurance should be fostered by state legislation, though that does not necessarily mean insurance at cost of government and by means of state administration. A considerable measure of state supervision and control will of course be needed for the proper development of industrial insurance, but such control is already accepted as necessary in connection with the regular insurance companies and fraternal societies now in existence. The government must always protect the common interest, where individual egoism threatens to injure the common weal.

The best methods must be found by experience and by experiment guided by expert actuarial advice. In this voyage of discovery of methods adapted to our new country much may be learned and mistakes may be avoided by careful consideration of the experience of older countries.

Your committee has the conviction that the time is ripe for an enlargement of the scope and an improvement in the method of industrial insurance so that it may better meet the needs of the masses of workingmen, and the committee would therefore urge the continuance by the conference of study and discussion which may tend to promote and direct this movement which is so deeply interesting to all nations of the civilized world.

In the general statement of facts and tendencies the members of the committee agree. In relation to the extension of

governmental supervision and compulsion it is probable that two or three are in doubt or antagonistic.

F. A. Fetter,
John Graham Brooks,
E. T. Devine,
A. W. Butler,
F. L. Hoffman,
S. G. Smith,
Charles R. Henderson, *Chairman,*
Committee.

INSURANCE FROM THE EMPLOYERS' STANDPOINT.

BY E. A. VANDERLIP, PRESIDENT NATIONAL CITY BANK, NEW YORK.

Most American employers recognize clearly enough a changed order of affairs in the industrial and commercial life. They know that they must shape their business methods so as to harmonize with the new order of things. They know that they must co-operate in many ways with their fellows; must share with them their risks; must help to sustain them in their misfortunes; they know that they have lost, in the new order of things, a certain amount of independence. It ought not to be difficult, then, for them to see that their employes are in the midst of a changed condition and that principles which apply to the relations between employers and employes, and to the relations between the State and the citizen, have been undergoing change. I believe that the reason why so many employers are interested in the subject of workingmen's pensions is to be found in the fundamental change which has been going on in industrial affairs. I believe their interests logically follow the evolution of economic laws, and if we are to seek for a secure foundation upon which to rest judgment in regard to this question of workingmen's pensions, we will find it in an analysis of economic condition, rather than in sentimental consideration or charitable ebullition.

Every intelligent employer of labor must recognize that throughout the lifetime of a workman there are two ominous conditions which act as an incubus to his efforts and progress.

His first great fear is that he may lose his income through accident or sickness. His second is the certainty that, as he grows old, his wages will gradually decrease at a period of life when he is rapidly becoming more dependent. This is a situation worthy of careful thought and consideration of every employer of labor.

In most countries of Europe, some action has been taken to relieve this fear of old age dependence. In Germany various paternalistic and socialistic efforts on the part of the government, as well as by private concerns, have proved efficacious. Various forms of patronal institutions have been as successful in France. In England there are thousands of co-operative and friendly societies which perform the same general service, that of supplementing the individual efforts of the employe in his handicapped struggle for existence. The average American, however, would scorn to await governmental initiative in a matter such as this, and most of our citizens have an innate distrust of Federal activities of this sort. In any event, they would not tolerate the patronal attitude.

In a survey of what has actually been accomplished in the way of old age pensions in this country, there will be found much that is interesting. A careful canvass has been made of railroads and large business corporations in America to ascertain the number of such corporations which have been led to adopt some system of old age pensions. In an inquiry reaching nearly two thousand corporations, the replies show that seventy have adopted some plan for retiring and providing for employes during old age. Without a single exception, the corporations which have adopted such a plan express the opinion, after having had an opportunity to note its effects, that it is a wise business practice. Among the corporations having a pension system are some of the most important in the United States. Some four hundred others replied that they had the matter under serious consideration and that they are convinced that the principle is sound from a business viewpoint.

Most of the employers who were questioned, regretfully acknowledged that it takes but a few years to use up a man, so high is the pressure at which work is now done. The employer is not to blame. He must keep his output up to the mark or be forced to the wall.

On every railway system, and in all manufacturing plants a percentage of the annual profits is set aside for repairs to keep the machinery and buildings in good condition. The same principle induces employers to establish old age pensions. These provide against the depreciation of employes and for their continuance and development just as the repair fund provides for the preservation of a manufacturing plant. One great manufacturer states that, in an experience of twenty-five years he has demonstrated that in his business one per cent. of the wages fund is sufficient to provide for the necessary pensions, and this employer also states that any business which cannot stand such an increase in expenses is so unstable as to be a menace, rather than a benefit, not only to its proprietor, but also to society.

More than thirty years ago, the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada adopted a pension system which has been growing in importance, and has continually given good reason for commendation from both the officials and the employes. Fifteen years ago the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad followed suit. In a letter which I received the other day from President Murray, of this road, he stated that the officials have always felt the operation of the pension system to be most satisfactory, and that they have at present in contemplation its more general application.

The Baltimore and Ohio Company commenced with an annual appropriation of $25,000 and $6,000 yearly in addition, the latter having been originally designed for use in connection with its relief department, but has always gone to the pension account because the relief fund proper did not need it. In the twenty-one years since the inception of the pension fund there has been $1,100,000 available, the total payments on the pension account during this period reaching $830,000. The direct appropriations of the company to the pension fund in the twenty-one years approximated $875,000; the company's indirect appropriation through the application to pension purposes of the special annual contribution to the relief department, together with the interest receipts, the company paying four per cent. on all balances, aggregate upwards of a quarter of a million of dollars additional. The surplus of the pension fund, according to the Baltimore and Ohio annual report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1905, was $320,444. The Baltimore and Ohio Com-

pany, as the leader in the field, had to blaze the way, so to speak, meet and overcome misconception of the actuating purposes, contend against misrepresentation and educate understanding where the disposition was adverse to enlightenment. The advice, 'Let well enough alone,' emanated from many other centers than the employes and their organizations. A feeling of this sort existed quite generally among railway official circles, and it was six years before another company followed the example of the Baltimore and Ohio.

In 1900 the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, and its affiliated lines, adopted a plan of pension allowances, and have pension departments which are administered jointly under the title of "The Pennsylvania Railroad Pension Department." All officers and employes of the companies who are required by the organization to give their entire time to the service of the companies, who shall have attained the age of seventy years, or who, being between the ages of sixty-five and sixty-nine years, inclusive, shall have been thirty or more years in the service of the company, and shall then be physically disqualified, are entitled to be relieved and placed upon the pension roll.

This undertaking is financed wholly by company contributions, the appropriation for this purpose in the year 1905 having been $390,000. The total expenditures by the company for pension allowances since the inauguration of the department, to and including December 31, 1905, aggregated $2,004,087.59. The total number of employes retired and granted pension allowance, up to the end of the year 1905, was 2,700. The average age of retirement for employes, up to December 31, 1905, was seventy-one years three months; the average length of service of employes, thirty-four years, two months. The number of pensioners carried on the pension rolls on December 31, 1905, was 1,810, and the number of deaths during the full period of department operation was 890. It is stated by the officials of the Pennsylvania Railroad that the results of the operation of the department have been essentially beneficial to the employes and to the company.

First, the pension allowances are paid exclusively from the railroad company's revenues, the beneficiaries making no contributions whatever to the undertaking.

Secondly, the employe is assured of a substantial income

(provided without any drain upon his own money resources) at an age or under physical conditions when it is most needed; and, finally, close observation of the working of the plan as reflected by the statements and conditions of both participating and non-participating employes, has demonstrated conclusively that the undertaking commands the unqualified endorsement and approval of the regular working force of the company, and also shows that its existence exercises a very pronounced salutary influence upon the *esprit du corps* of the service.

On January 1, 1901, the Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company inaugurated a pension system which was modelled upon the plan of the Pennsylvania Railroad, with the exception that the service period is placed at twenty years instead of thirty. President Hughitt and all the officials of the Northwestern, are greatly pleased with the operation of the system and consider that it has been most beneficial to the company, as well as to the employes.

In respect to the age of retirement, there is a fair amount of unanimity in all the pension plans adopted by American railways. The majority of the schemes fix the age at sixty-five. A number of them, the Pennsylvania for example, gives some play to the judgment of employing officers so far as the retention of employes between the ages of sixty-five and seventy is concerned. The Carnegie Steel Company retires men at the age of sixty and the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada at the age of fifty-five.

As a general rule, in the plans thus far adopted in this country, specified length of service is required as a condition precedent to obtaining a pension. The Canadian Pacific, Illinois Central and Baltimore and Ohio Railroads have fixed the term of service at ten years. The Carnegie Company and the First National Bank of Chicago fixed it at fifteen. The Southern Pacific and its allied lines make it twenty years, while the Pennsylvania Railroad and a number of Eastern roads made it necessary for an employe to have been thirty years in their service. On the other hand, the Philadelphia and Reading has adopted a very broad plan. On that railroad any faithful employe, irrespective either of age or of length of service, who receives injuries in the performance of duty, or becomes incapacitated

through sickness, may be awarded such pension as the president determines.

Practically without exception those American railroads which have adopted the pension system, provide the entire fund out of which pension allowances are paid. The Grand Trunk Railway requires a contribution of 2½ per cent. of the monthly wages. The First National Bank of Chicago requires a contribution of 3 per cent. While the employe contributes to the fund, provision is always made for the return of his payments in case he severs his connection with the service.

A considerable number of manufacturing corporations have arranged to care for their employes in old age. In 1903, the Standard Oil Company ruled that any officer or employe who had given twenty-five years' satisfactory service to the company, and had attained the age of sixty-five years, should be put on the annuity roll at the discretion of the directors, and receive an allowance of 25 per cent. of his or her average pay for the ten years preceding retirement.

"The Talbot Mills, North Billerica, Massachusetts; the Gorham Manufacturing Company, Providence, R. I.; Alfred Dolge & Sons, Dolgeville, New York, are a few among many. The Pittsburg Coal Company, the Metropolitan Street Railway Company, of New York, and Messrs. Wells, Fargo & Company are corporations which have had pension systems in successful operation for some time past. Only recently the board of directors of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad decided to establish a regular pension system and has appointed a committee to formulate rules for its government. A vice president of the company states that all the officers are heartily in favor of the institution of such a system, both from a humanitarian standpoint and because they believe that it tends to bring about better relations between employers and employed.

If I were to attempt to summarize the reasons why so many corporations are beginning to provide for their employes in old age, I would say that they embrace such consideration as this:

The pension attaches the employes to the service and thus decreases the liability to strike. It makes more certain a continuance of efficient men in the lines of work with which they are perfectly familiar. Of quite as much importance is the fact that a pension system enables employers to dispense with the elderly

and inefficient and thus gives constant encouragement to good effort on the part of the younger men hoping for promotion. When employes realize that unsatisfactory conduct may at any time lose them not only their present position — a loss which in such a labor market as ours might be easily made good — but that it entails further the loss of a very valuable asset, the employe's right to a pension, the incentive to good conduct is greatly increased. It operates especially as an incentive to hold men betwen the ages of forty and fifty when they have acquired the experience and skill which makes them especially valuable, and prevents their being tempted away by slightly increased wages for a temporary period.

Those business institutions which have adopted the old age pension scheme have not done so from sentimental considerations, but rather from considerations of economy and efficiency of administration. They have found that when provision is made for those who are too old to render efficient service, every employe in the service who recognizes that at some time he may become eligible to such benefits, will be under strong inducements for good behavior. In financial institutions particularly, if men are removed from anxiety for the future, they are much more apt to devote their best efforts exclusively to their careers, and to be in less danger of diverting their energies into side channels of money-making — channels which may easily lead them on to dangerous ground.

That there is to be development of the industrial pension idea is as inevitable as the working of the laws of economic progress, and whether that development should be directed by the government, or whether it can best find expression through the individual action of corporations, I am not prepared to offer an opinion. The thing that I do thoroughly believe, however, and the one conclusion which I have formed, and the one which seems to me you ought not to find difficulty in agreeing with, is that the subject is one that should command the earnest thought and united action of all philanthropic workers. A commission which would give the subject a thorough investigation and would put the results of that investigation in such shape that we could grasp the significance of what has been done would be of great value. I believe it is worth the while of such men as you to give impetus to such a movement, to throw your influence on the side

of a complete inquiry into all the phases of this subject. If to do this accords with your judgment, I am confident that an inquiry so instituted will be followed by results that will be of very great economic importance to the Nation.

THE NEED OF INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE.

BY FRANK A. FETTER, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.

The old political economy was written almost entirely from the standpoint of the employers, and that class dominated the thought and the policy of nations by reason of its wealth, its education, its ability, its aggressiveness, and its faith in its own worth and beneficence. We inherited from England that point of view, and despite many changes in industry and in opinion, the employer's view still dominates in great degree, and for the old reasons, the discussion of public questions today. We have, however, come of late to see in every question touching the relations of capital and labor, that three great interests are involved, that of the employer, that of the workman, and that of the general public. And we have come to feel that while the employers' interests have a place in such discussions, it should be only a minor place, and it should properly be subordinate to the larger human interests involved.

We have just had presented the view of the modern employer, who is enlightened and progressive, but who considers this question frankly with reference to the efficiency and success of his own industry. Let us not forget the other parties in interest, the workmen and the public.

In the school of anthropology at Paris hangs a picture which strikes the imagination of the social student and fastens itself upon his memory. The picture represents the home-coming of a primeval man, who finds his wife and child mangled and dying beneath a lion's paws. The huge blonde savage has seen the bloody group within the cave while himself as yet unseen and, agony showing on every feature, he has thrown himself flat against the rocks to escape the view of his brute enemy. The picture is horrible but fascinating; it compresses within a moment the tragedy of primeval man. Always threatened by acci-

dent and death, never safe from beasts of prey, human enemies, disease, and famine, the primitive man and his family fought for tens of thousands of years a wavering and doubtful battle for a foothold upon this globe. The birth rate was doubtless the greatest possible, but the death rate from accident and disease was such that countless tribes became extinct and whole populations were swept out of existence.

To turn from such a picture as this to the conditions of the world today, makes one happier and more hopeful. The progress of the world has been largely the elimination of accident and chance. Wild beasts have been exterminated; famines and plagues destroying whole populations are no more among us; and for the masses of men in the western world there is now a degree of security of life and limb and livelihood that was beyond the bounds of imagination to the savage in the primeval forest.

But with improving conditions have happily come advancing ideals. We do not, and we ought not, sit wrapt in contemplation of the progress of the past; rather we ought to think of the risks remaining, the untimely deaths, the tragedies of widowed and fatherless, still coming to many homes today.

A new picture might well be painted to characterize the risk of modern life. New dangers have been created by machinery, and by the new processes of industry. Such a picture might show the stricken mother as she sees her boy brought home from work dead or dying. It might compress into a moment the long drawn-out suffering of the wife and children of the victim. In 1904 there were 70,000 accidents to railroad employes in the United States and 3,600 of these were fatal. Of the class of trainmen one in 120 was killed and one in every 9 was injured. Exact figures are lacking for most trades, but risk is present in all, and in some it is enormous. In Germany, with two-thirds our population, there are 800,000 injuries in the year serious enough to deserve compensation under the accident insurance law, or 1 in every 25 of the insured.

Wherever there is such a risk of suffering that can be reduced or removed from the lives of men and women, and it is left uncovered, there barbarism lingers. May not many of the wage-workers rightly exclaim that civilization has brought its blessings for others, but not for them; it has made others more

secure, it has left them exposed to dangers? Modern industry adds to the dangers to life and limb in proportion to the toil and harshness of the task, and to the meagerness of the reward. This unspoken plea rises from millions of hearts today, and other hearts will heed it.

At this point should be noted an objection sometimes made to industrial insurance, that it is already practically provided by the higher wages which prevail in industries of exceptional risks. This view involves a total misunderstanding of insurance. Even if the wages in dangerous occupations rose far more than would, on the whole, cover the exceptional risk, there would be no insurance for the individuals who were hurt, unless those higher wages were invested in accident insurance, and that it does in but a few cases. But further, it must be denied with positiveness, that wages in hazardous occupations rise in anything like the degree of the risk. This was erroneously assumed by Adam Smith, the great economist, and by many others since his day. No doubt some men when they have the choice open to them will, other things being equal, choose the pleasanter and safer work. But to large classes of men little or no choice is open; and if there is, the fear of accident has very little effect on the choice, and therefore very little if any effect on wages. Indeed, in many cases a spice of danger attracts rather than repels the average man. It will be a sad day for the world when a theory of wages can be based upon universal cowardice. Let us be thankful that red corpuscles flow in the veins of men so long as there are seas to sail, battles to fight, and the world's work to do.

The days are filled with deeds — mostly unrecorded — of the heroism of the common man. The engineer at the throttle, the mechanic working high in the air welding the framework of bridges and buildings, the miner braving the deadly fire damp and explosions, the common laborer in the tunnel or ditch liable at any moment to death from caving walls — these men are doing every day the work of the world — are doing it fearlessly and for the most part joyously. While this Conference has been meeting in Philadelphia the papers have told a typical story of every-day courage. A man who had passed through the San Francisco earthquake came to Philadelphia and got employment as a teamster. Two days later the heavy wagon he was

driving sank into a sewer on the street. Horses and wagon were engulfed, and the man was hurled across the street and badly injured. He did not stop to count the chances, — he did not reason that the horses belonged to a big corporation and that it was not his affair what became of them. Forgetful of himself, and injured as he was, he jumped into the chasm, and at the risk of his life, released the horses and by the help of the bystanders got them safely out upon the street. Then he collapsed and was taken to a hospital.

Taking up a recent report of factory inspection one reads a long and sad catalog of cases like these:

"Copper roller. Caught by 300 pound sheet of copper which swung around, pinioning him against the roller, the sharp edge of copper cutting off the right leg and badly mangling the left. Death occurred same day."

"Quarryman. Killed by premature explosion; the battery man mistaking the warning call for the signal to fire. Leaves wife and seven children."

Against such accidents as these the common man is not adequately insured by our existing employers' liability laws, or by the extra high wages of dangerous occupations, or by the existing institutions for voluntary insurance, or by all the existing agencies combined.

There is need of full, general, certain insurance for every industrial worker, to lift from him and his family the cloud of uncertainty and the burden of suffering that result from the continual accidents which are inevitable so far as the victims are concerned. The question whether the cost of such insurance would really come out of wages has nothing to do with our conclusion. There is need of insurance to make the mass of men more fully sharers in the greatest fruits of civilization, freedom from the cruelty and suffering of chance in their daily lives.

View this question from another standpoint — one most appropriate to this Conference — the standpoint of the welfare and ideals of society at large, and the need of industrial insurance is still more clearly manifest. The practical workers in this Conference have occasion every day to distinguish broadly between two classes of cases calling for material relief, — those cases due to continuing and transmitted defects, and those due to accidental and temporary causes. We distinguish broadly between physical

and social degeneracy on the one hand, and accident and sickness occurring to the normal person on the other, and yet we are compelled to treat the two in much the same way, — by alms, — and because thus treated persons suffering from temporary disability are constantly liable to become demoralized and degenerate. The two classes of cases may be distinguished as the uninsurable and the insurable; and we shall take a long stride toward the solution of our problem when we have clearly distinguished the two. The one class — the abnormal — must be segregated, protected, socially and humanely sterilized; the other, the normal, needs in the main an effective system of insurance. Society needs industrial insurance to help it to solve the problems of philanthropy.

There is no more wonderful history than that of the growth of the social conscience within the past two centuries. Quickened in such great personalities as John Howard and Dorothea Dix, it has spread from soul to soul. And miraculously the eyes of men have opened to cruelties about them, in prison, asylum and factory, and wrong after wrong has been recognized and righted. And now the social conscience is becoming awakened to the need of removing the cruelty of industrial chance whenever and wherever that can be done.

In early days, in cruder conditions of society, protection against the sufferings of chance was, humanly speaking, impossible. The world was too poor, the production of wealth was too small, the social conscience was too undeveloped, society was too little organized, and the methods and beneficence of insurance were quite unknown. And so accident, sickness and sudden death to the workers were looked upon as visitations of Providence, like plague, pestilence and famine, to be borne by the wicked as the penalty of their sins. But today, when we have other knowledge and other beliefs, we look upon a scourge of cholera as a social crime and not merely as the individual misfortune of the victims. We demand of society through its health officers protection to all citizens against such calamities.

In large measure industrial mishaps are unavoidable, and here the comparison with contagious disease may seem to fail; but in large measure the suffering caused by these mishaps may be softened by society today, and here the analogy is perfect. America is rich as no country ever has been before, and we

know how by insurance to give this protection. For these reasons our duty is clearer, and our responsibility is greater than those of our forefathers.

America has had the virtues and the faults of a young country. Our scattered population has called for little social action; — the individual could work out most things for himself. The rich natural resources and free conditions stimulated our people to a veritable madness of industry and wealth-getting, and youthlike we have been at once lavishly charitable and cruelly thoughtless.

The old industrial independence is disappearing. More and more we depend economically upon others, and more and more, therefore, our social responsibility increases. When the engineer faces danger at the throttle, it is for the safety of the passengers; when the factory hand works in the midst of dangerous machinery, it is to turn out things of use and beauty for a thousand homes. We are beginning to see that the risks of industrial accident should be borne not by the unlucky worker and his family, but by the community which enjoys the products. It is believed by many that whether employers voluntarily insure their workmen or are forced to insure them, that the cost will not come out of the employers' pockets, but it will be shifted upon others. That may well be. But if the workmen in the end, by the adjustment of wages, have to pay a part, it is far better for them than the present risk and misery. And if the public, the consumers, in the end have to pay a large part, or all, it is a result to be thankful for. Why should not the risk of workmen be included in the calculation of the cost of prduction? Business must insure against every material risk to buildings, stock and machinery, and include the premiums in the cost, but it does not regularly and adequately provide for the loss of the man who is thrown upon the industrial scrap heap. That cost too should be met by those who enjoy the product; and if, as consumers, we are willing to let the workman bear the burden that prices may be cheaper at his cost, we are nothing better than paupers in the spirit.

In fact there is reason to believe that the present wasteful litigation and damage payment, though giving the injured most inadequate and irregular compensation, is a great burden on industry, and does in large measure increase prices, and does

involve a large part of the social cost of an adequate and equitable system of compensation.

But whether the workman and the employer divide the cost; or whether the rest of the public pays part in higher prices; or whether the cost is to be met in part by taxation, these are small questions compared with this: Can the awakened social conscience permit the continuance of this lottery of human life, this gamble of human happiness?

Industrial insurance will not solve all the social problems; they are too many and too hard for that. It will not end all social discontent; let us hope that this divine spark that kindles ever anew the torch of progress, never will cease to glow. But industrial insurance will lift from millions of lives a cloud of uncertainty and a burden of suffering. It is not the fear of bodily pain, but the torture of mind that is the worst of the laboring man's lot. Industrial insurance must come to still the social conscience now awake and reflected in this Conference. Industrial insurance is needed in America to bring our social legislation abreast of that of the leading countries of the civilized world. It is needed to justify us in the eyes of the world; but most of all it is needed to justify us in our own eyes and to our own conscience. For the old cruelty of thoughtlessness is disappearing, and we see that by insurance we may put a modern, a practical, and a philanthropic meaning into the words — "Bear ye one another's burdens."

The social conscience demands that a way shall be found to deal with the practical difficulties; and it will override all selfish objections and all cynical opposition. Of nations as of men it may be said:

> "When duty whispers low, 'thou must,'
> The youth replies, 'I can.'"

GOVERNMENT AND MUNICIPAL PENSIONS.

BY AMOS W. BUTLER, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES OF INDIANA.

This paper is submitted as a part of the report of the committee appointed to consider plans of so-called insurance of wage-earners, and deals particularly with the federal, state and muni-

cipal pension systems. Some of the figures given were collected in 1905 and it has not been found possible to bring them nearer to date.

The subject naturally divides itself into (1) federal pensions, (2) state pensions and (3) municipal pensions. Under the first division we have for consideration military and other pensions granted by the national government, and proposed civil service legislation; under the second, confederate pensions, and under the third, pensions granted school teachers, policemen and firemen.

I. FEDERAL PENSIONS.

In 1636 the Plymouth Pilgrims enacted a regulation that whoever should set forth as a soldier and return maimed should be maintained by the colony for the rest of his life. The Virginia Assembly, in 1644, passed a law providing pensions for disabilities. Our first real pension law was passed by the Continental Congress, August 26, 1776. This law, and in fact all the earlier pension laws were passed with the object of encouraging enlistment. In addition to this law, the separate States made provision for their own soldiers.

During the Revolutionary War a very strong incentive was necessary to keep those in the service from deserting, so in 1778 half-pay for life was voted to officers who would agree to serve until the end of the war. The year 1782 marked another step in pension legislation, when pensions were voted to those who became disabled through service before the end of the war. In 1788 a time limit of six months in which to apply for pensions was made.

The first Congress voted a continuance of the pensions already in existence. In 1792 it passed the first general pension law. This act imposed on the circuit court the duty of determining the eligibility of applicants for pensions, but it did not work well and was soon repealed.

For a while the Secretary of War was the final judge of claims. In 1806 a new pension law was passed and all former pension laws repealed. This law recognized and added to the list, volunteer, militia and state troops that had served during the war. Disabilities must have been the result of known wounds, received in the line of duty, and must have rendered the applicant unfit for service.

The law of 1818 marks a new departure. Up to this time pensions had been granted on account of disabilities received during actual service, but the new law granted pensions to all those who had served in the Revolution nine months and were in need of assistance. The evidence of a claimant's right to a pension was taken by the judge of the circuit court and was submitted to the Secretary of War. Under this law of 1818, pension frauds began and they have gradually grown. The act of 1832 provided that pensions be granted for life to all those who had served two years in the Revolution.

There had been no provision of any importance for widows and orphans up to 1836, but from this time on acts became numerous. First, provision was made for those widows who were married during the Revolution; then for those married prior to a certain fixed time; finally, for widows of all the soldiers of the Revolution.

From the first, pensions for seamen were on a different basis from those for land forces. The acts of 1799 and 1800 provided for a navy pension fund, to be made up from the money the government received from prizes. If this did not prove a sufficient amount, the remainder necessary for the fund was to be appropriated by the government. Prior to 1812, only invalid pensions were granted from this fund, but after 1812 the system became similar to that applied to those who served in the army. In 1905 the navy pension fund paid about nine per cent. of the navy pensions.[1]

With the beginning of the Civil War pensions, there is noted increasing liberality in conducting pension affairs. Up to 1879 a man, to be eligible for a pension, must have applied within five years after his discharge. The Arrears Pension Act of 1879 is one of the most noted of our pension laws. It provided that all pensions which had been granted under the general laws regulating pensions should commence from the date of the discharge of the person on whose account the pension had been granted. The rate of the pension for the intervening time from which the pension had been granted was to be the same as that for which the pension was originally granted. The letter of the law forbade compensation to claim agents, but in reality it was a rich harvest for them. The amount of pensions had been decreasing up to the

[1] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1905, pp. 7, 8.

passage of the Arrears Act, but now the amount expended took a great jump. In 1879 the disbursements were $33,780,529.19; in 1880, $57,240,540.14. It is said that the passage of the Arrears Pension Act created a demand on the part of claimants and pension claim agents which finally resulted in another very important piece of pension legislation: the Dependent Pension Act of 1890. This act provided for a pension of $12 per month to any person who had served three months in the army of the United States and was honorably discharged, suffering from mental or physical disability not the result of his own vicious habits.

In addition to these laws, there is in each session of Congress, considerable special legislation, by means of which pensions are granted to persons who cannot get them under the present system, liberal though it is.

There has been a growing liberality in pension legislation. At first pensions were granted only for disability, and this was carefully restricted. The range of the law soon widened to include widows and orphans; the rates were increased. In 1818 service pensions were granted, and since then pension laws have gradually widened in their scope. The pension legislation prior to 1861 is now of little importance. The principal laws since 1861 are two: (1) a general law applying to soldiers of all the wars of the United States; and (2) the law of 1890, applying to soldiers of the Civil War.

Military land grants. The system of military land grants arose out of the impoverished condition of our government after the Revolutionary War. Because of this, grants of land were made to pensioners, substantially upon the same theory as that employed by the Roman government. Bounty land warrants are still being issued by the general government. To obtain such a warrant, one must have served for at least fourteen days in battle, prior to March 3, 1855, and if in the navy or regular army, must have been in some war in which the United States was engaged. The total number of bounty land warrants issued since the Revolutionary War was 598,573, covering 68,774,950 acres. This does not include warrants issued under special act of Congress, nor the Virginia military land grants satisfied by the United States.[2]

Military service pensions. Considerable effort has been

[2] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1905, pp. 18, 19.

made to secure a service pension law for those who served in the Civil War, but this has not been successful. The President's order No. 78 has, however, added many to the pension list and has gone far to meet the present demand for a service pension law. This was approved March 15, 1904, and it extends the provisions of the existing pension law of 1890 to all soldiers of the Civil War over sixty-two years of age, under a system of pensions graded according to age.

Abuses of military pensions. That there are evils in our pension system is very evident, and it is not difficult to determine some of the causes of these. One lay in the surplus in the national treasury, which proved an incentive to liberal pension laws. We expend more for pensions than several of the larger European countries combined. In 1891 the following European countries expended for this purpose the amounts indicated: Great Britain, $27,054,110; France, $29,857,000; Germany, $13,283,000; Austria, $12,245,000. In the United States the expenditures for the same year were $118,548,949.71.[3] The disbursements for pensions by the United States from July 1, 1790, to June 30, 1905, were $3,320,860,023.98.[4] Another thing which resulted in an abuse of the pension system was the general feeling of good will toward the citizen soldiers, in that there was no inclination to criticise anything done for that class. It is said the activities of claim agents, the desire to control the soldier vote and the influence of the Grand Army of the Republic[5] also led to abuses. Some of the results of the various abuses which have been charged against our pension system are here mentioned.

1. *Effect on morality and patriotism.* Unwise laws have lowered the standard of morality and patriotism. This is shown by the frauds that have been discovered and by claims of disabilities which have been proven to be imaginary. People get pensions who do not need them, and in many cases young women have married old soldiers in order to secure the benefit of a pension after the soldier's death.[6] The soldier, under the operations of these laws and the practices which have grown up, as he has observed them, has come to have one standard of morality for

[3] Forum XII, p. 646.

[4] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1905, p. 24.

[5] Glasson. History of Military Pension Legislation in the United States. 1900. pp. 106, 107, 111, 129.

[6] Ibid. p. 129.

dealing with his fellowmen and quite a different one for dealing with the government.[7] The law of June 7, 1888, offers a premium on perjury and false witnesses.[8]

2. *Financial burden.* It is unjust to the taxpayers to have to support and pay the lavish grants for unnecessarily large pensions.[9]

3. *Degradation.* The veteran had to be educated by the claim agent to demand an extension of the pension system. Loyal citizens did not go into the army for pay. Those who had the true sense of patriotism would much rather earn their own livelihood than draw money in idleness.[10] The importunities of attorneys and claim agents are a temptation to many men to seek to obtain allowances from the government.[11]

4. *Looseness in medical examinations.* The system of examining an applicant for a pension is very loose. The physicians in many cases owe their places to claim agents. The examiners depend for their practice upon the community in which they are located, and of course, hesitate to report contrary to the interests of the home applicant. This evil is recognized in the pension department, and as a remedy the co-operation of a medical officer of the Bureau is recommended.[12]

5. *Effect on politics.* Congress has been forced by the Grand Army of the Republic and by claim agents to pass pension bills that it did not favor. Controlling the number of votes that it does, the Grand Army of the Republic has been able to dictate to the party in power. The Arrears Pension Act has been responsible for a great deal of fraud perpetrated.[13]

6. *Effect on character.* Pensions to the undeserving tend to pauperize those who have no real disability. Some have perjured themselves to obtain a pension which they were talked into thinking they deserved. To many the present idea of the pension system is that it is a chance to get an easy income from the government, whether one has a real disability or not.[14] This is shown

[7] N. A. Review, 166, p. 374.
[8] Rept. Comr. Pensions, 1901, p. 136.
[9] Glasson. Ibid. p. 130.
[10] Forum, XII, p. 423.
[11] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1895, pp. 14, 15.
[12] Ibid, 1901, p. 142.
[13] Popular Science Monthly, XXXV, p. 721; Forum VI, p. 540.
[14] Forum, XXVI, p. 306.

by the applications for pensions on account of Spanish War service. Already thousands of applications are in for Spanish War pensions. As much as fifty per cent. of some companies which never even left the United States are asking for pensions. This is especially true of the colored companies, and shows the idea held among the ignorant concerning pensions. Up to 1903 there had been 62,041 applications[15] for Spanish War pensions. There were about 274,000 men in this war, and of this number only 60,000 saw actual service. The total expenditures for pensions on account of the war with Spain and the insurrection in the Philippine Islands are now $11,996,198.63, the disbursement for 1905 alone having been $3,409,998.54.[16] These men are not to blame, for they have been educated to ask for pensions.

7. *Crime is encouraged.* The pension act of June 7, 1888,[17] enables widows who have remarried, to then apply for and receive a pension. This is paid in one sum for the entire period of widowhood. This law resulted in the filing of many fraudulent claims, and thus encouragement was given to the commission of crime. Great difficulties are often experienced by the authorities in disproving a marriage or marriage relations alleged to have occurred thirty or forty years ago.[18]

The uses of military pensions. It is the recognized policy of the State to care for its needy citizens. It is the established rule in civilized countries properly to provide for those who are incapacitated or rendered helpless by the misfortunes of war. There are some who question the right to go farther than to help the invalid soldier, his dependent family, and his widow and orphans. In this country we have gone farther than that, and farther than any country has gone in pension legislation. By law we may pension any one who served ninety days or more in the army or navy of the United States during the Civil War and who is incapacitated for manual labor, not the result of his own vicious habits. The United States makes provision for her soldiers by means of pensions, land grants and custodial institutions, or by all of these. They can be cared for in their own

[15] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1903, p. 47.

[16] Ibid, 1905, p. 9.

[17] Public Opinion, XXVI, p. 486; XXX, p. 487.

[18] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1898, pp. 15, 16; Ibid, 1895, p. 14; Ibid, 1899, pp. 27, 28.

homes, where they can contribute more or less to their own support, or if necessary, may take advantage of the opportunities offered in the larger "Soldiers' Homes." Some of the reasons for giving pensions may be summed up as follows:

1. Every citizen owes to his country the duty of defending his government. Such men deserve the country's gratitude and a grateful people will not allow such soldiers or their families to suffer for the sacrifices they have made, without such reasonable relief as can under the circumstances be given.[19]

2. Pensions stimulate the spirit of patriotism in a people by honoring the love of country exhibited by the soldiers.[20]

3. Pensions are granted in recognition of the poor pay of the soldiers and in a sense recompense the soldier for what he has lost. They are a form of insurance, whereby the soldier offers the risk of his life in payment for protection in old age, or for the protection of his wife and children in the event of his death.[21]

4. Pensions are given to dependent relatives in recognition of the soldier's response to the call of duty.[22]

5. Pensions afford a means of protection to the soldier and his family without the stigma of pauperism.

6. The value of pensions as a means of encouraging enlistment is recognized. By reason of our pension system, we do not need the large standing army of old world nations. Our citizens volunteer freely, knowing it is the settled policy to care for the crippled and aged and to help the widow and the orphan.

OTHER FEDERAL PENSIONS.

In addition to the pensions granted for military service, the federal government also grants pensions to war nurses, to persons in the life-saving service and to presidents' widows.

Nurses. By the Act of Congress of August 5, 1892, all women employed by the surgeon-general of the army as nurses during the late war of the rebellion, for a period of six months or more, and who were honorably relieved from such service, are granted a pension, provided they are unable to earn their own

[19] Rept. Comr. of Pensions, 1895, p. 13.
[20] N. A. Review, CLIII, p. 205.
[21] N. A. Review, CLIII, p. 205.
[22] Ibid.

support. Under this law there were 624 pensioners in the year ending June 30, 1902.

Life-saving service. The only law providing for relief in the nature of pensions for persons in the Life-saving Service, is that contained in Sections 7 and 8 of the Act of Congress, approved May 4, 1882. This provides that if any keeper or member of a crew of a life-saving or life-boat station shall be so disabled by reason of any wound or injury received or disease contracted in the life-saving service in the line of duty as to unfit him for the performance of duty, he shall be continued upon the rolls of the service at full pay for a period under no circumstances greater than two years. A bill to provide for the retirement of and for pensions to those engaged in the life-saving work was introduced in both houses of Congress during the 58th session. This is identical with Senate Bill 467, which also received careful consideration, but failed to pass on a tie vote in the closing days of that session.

Presidents' widows. By special act approved July 4, 1836, the minor children of President James Monroe were granted a pension, and by special acts, approved in the order named, the widow of each of the following named presidents was granted a pension: Abraham Lincoln, James K. Polk, James A Garfield, Ulysses S Grant and William McKinley.

Civil Service. In the United States as well as in European countries there has been quite an agitation in the last few years for civil service pensions. As yet nothing of much importance has been done, though in 1898 a bill was introduced in Congress to provide a civil service pension fund.

This proposed bill provided for the retention and investment by the Secretary of the Treasury of two per cent. of all monthly salaries of civil service employes. Four years after the first payments were made, retirements were to begin with life annuities of 75 per cent. of the highest pay at any time received by the retiring employe. Retirements after twenty years' service were to be either voluntary or compulsory: voluntary after sixty years of age and twenty-five years' service, compulsory after seventy years of age and thirty-five years' service. The Civil Service Commission was to act as the retiring board. This bill failed to pass and it will probably be some time before a civil service pension bill can be passed, as people in general are much

opposed to the extension of the pension system. If such a pension scheme could be supported by deductions from salaries, there could be no well-founded objections, but according to the evidence such a plan as proposed could not be self-supporting.

Those in favor of civil service pensions urge that employes of the government who are no longer useful, but whom the government does not dare dismiss, could be retired. Again, it is urged that it would make the service more stable.

Those opposed urge that positions in the civil service are largely sought, as the pay is far in excess of that paid private employes doing similar work, and the work is more agreeable. They believe that a band of pensioned employes would be a great factor in keeping a particular political party in power. The strongest claim urged against it is that it will discourage individual effort to save. When the individual has his future secure, he will not have the thrift that he otherwise would have.

II. STATE PENSIONS.

Under this division of the subject come the pensions paid to ex-soldiers of the Confederate Army and their dependents. It has been difficult to secure information regarding this class of pensions, but after considerable effort some facts have been gathered from the eleven States which have laws on this subject. These States are Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia.

The first of these to grant pensions to Confederate soldiers appears to have been Georgia, where the system was inaugurated in 1879. By 1902 the number of pensioners on the roll had grown to 13,975 and these were paid a total of $822,695.00. In 1903 there were 14,525 pensioners and the expenditures amounted to $857,415.00. The facts learned regarding the other States mentioned are given herewith, the States being arranged alphabetically.

In Alabama, in 1902, there were 13,405 Confederate pensioners and the expenditures amounted to $273,099.85. In 1903 the pensioners numbered 14,415 and the expenditures were $335,937.70. In 1904 the pensioners numbered 15,038 and the expenditures were $358,333.78.

The pension law of Arkansas was approved March 11, 1901. Under it the State paid $156,592.00 to 5,625 pensioners in 1902; $163,402.00 to 6,200 pensioners in 1903, and $180,563.00 to 6,495 pensioners in 1904.

Florida's first pension law was enacted in 1885; the present law was approved June 6, 1903. On July 5, 1905, there were about three thousand pensioners on the roll and about twelve hundred applications were on file awaiting action. The expenditures in 1902 were $123,517.16; in 1903, $178,939.14; in 1904, $266,720.19.

In Louisiana 2,713 names have been placed upon the pension roll since December, 1898, and $75,000 was paid out each year, in 1902, 1903 and 1904.

Mississippi enacted its first pension law in 1888. The number of pensioners in 1902 was 6,680; in 1903, 7,333; in 1904, 7,271. The appropriations for this purpose in 1902 and 1903, respectively, were $200,000 and in 1904, $250,000.

The first law in North Carolina was passed in 1885, and about $35,000 was appropriated. This amount was increased from time to time, until in 1902, 1903 and 1904 $200,000 was paid out for pensions each year. For the years 1905 and 1906, $275,000 has been appropriated. The total number of pensioners in 1902, 1903 and 1904, respectively, was as follows: 11,860, 12,605 and 13,500. In addition to the above, there is a special class, those totally disabled, who are paid $10.00 per month by the Clerk of the Court of each county where these pensioners reside. There are about 90 of this class.

The pension report of South Carolina for 1904 indicates a total expenditure of $197,309.42 for pensions that year, the number of pensioners being 8,544. The law under which the State is now operating was passed in 1902.

The first general law of Tennessee was passed in March, 1891. Prior to that time the State had a law, passed in 1883, whereby blind soldiers might receive a pension of $10.00 per month. Under the law as passed in 1891 there was paid out in the two years ending March, 1903, $150,000 per year. In the next two years, $200,000 per year. The appropriation for the two years ending March, 1907, is $250,000 per year. On May 12, 1905, there were 2,663 pensioners on the roll. The Legislature of 1905 passed a law known as the Widows' Pension Law,

whereby $25,000 annually for two years was provided for the pension of the widows of Tennessee soldiers.

In Texas, the first pension law was enacted in 1899. The legislative appropriations for this purpose since the enactment of the law are as follows: 1900, $100,000; 1901, $150,000; 1902, $200,000; 1903, $200,000; 1904, $250,000; 1905, $250,000; 1906, $400,000; 1907, $500,000. The number of pensioners on the roll in 1905 was 7,400, and it was thought that by the end of the year the number would reach 8,000.

Virginia's first pension act was passed in 1888, another in 1900, and the last in 1902. The first appropriation was $65,000, made in 1888. The amount now set apart and expended annually is $300,000. There are between 13,000 and 14,000 soldiers and widows of soldiers on the rolls.

Three other States make special provision for Confederate soldiers, though not by means of pensions. Kentucky maintains a Confederate Soldiers' Home at State expense. The institution was established in 1902. In Maryland the constitution expressly provides that there shall be no general pension fund, but the State appropriates annually $12,000 toward the maintenance of the Maryland Line Confederate Soldiers' Home, founded in 1887. The institution belongs to a private corporation, and its annual maintenance cost is about $14,000. It has about ninety inmates. Missouri's only provision for Confederate soldiers is the Confederate Home at Higginsville, maintained at State expense. Homes for Confederate soldiers are also maintained in Virginia, North Carolina, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Texas and Tennessee.[23]

III. MUNICIPAL PENSIONS.

The municipal pension movement is not revolutionary, it is evolutionary. The various systems have developed from insurance societies of different kinds, from benefit associations, or from some organization of municipal workers. In some cities where there is no municipal pension system, there is some organization with practically the same purpose. The municipal pension idea as yet has not progressed very far. Only a few of the larger cities are using it, and as a result conclusions are some-

[23] Proc. Nat'l Conf. Char. and Corr., 1896, p. 294.

what difficult to draw. This may be done, however, with reference to a few classes of municipal employes.

Laws have been passed in several states providing for the creation of a pension fund for cities of a certain size, generally larger cities. In the laws examined, they applied only to teachers, firemen and policemen.

For several years the organized teachers have led the movement in certain states for the creation of a pension fund for the benefit of their older co-workers, and a few of the larger cities now have some such provision.[24] The source of the fund varies with the different communities. One State, Maryland, provides for teachers' pensions wholly from the State Treasury, but only upon certain conditions. If the teacher is at least sixty years of age; if he has taught in the schools of the State for twenty-five years; if his record as a teacher is without reproach and if he is unable, because of mental or physical disability, to continue his work, he may petition the State Board of Education for a pension, and upon the recommendation of that Board, is entitled to $200 annually from the State Treasury. In New York a state law appropriates five per cent. of all excise moneys as a contribution to the retirement fund for the teachers of New York City. So far as has been learned, these two States are the only ones making contributions from the public treasury for the benefit of retired teachers.

In other cities having a pension or retirement fund, the money is raised in various ways, under the authority of State laws. In New Jersey, Ohio and California there are laws applying to all the cities and counties, which provide for the creation of such a fund from fines, donations and miscellaneous sources, and from contributions voluntarily made by teachers expecting to be benefited. A similar law exists in Illinois, but applies only to cities of 100,000 population or more and fines are not included. Massachusetts has a similar law applying to the city of Boston; Rhode Island, applying to Providence, and New York and Michigan applying to certain cities.

In some States the annuities are uniform in amount, in others they are a certain per cent. of the beneficiary's former salary. In some States a certain per cent. of the teachers' sal-

[24] N. E. A. Report of Com. on Salaries, Tenure and Pensions of Public School Teachers, July, 1905, p. 177.

aries is retained for the pension fund; in others nothing is said in the law of a regular contribution on the part of the teachers. A similar variation is to be observed in the laws of different States regulating the length of time teachers shall have served before being eligible to a pension.

Detroit and New York City have what might properly be termed a municipal pension for teachers, since in those two cities a part of the pension fund comes from the city treasury. In Detroit the fund consists of gifts, legacies, etc., also moneys appropriated by the Board of Education or raised by approval of the Common Council and the Board of Estimates, tuition fees of non-residents, and interest on daily balances of moneys appropriated for teachers' salaries. In New York City, as has been stated, the teachers' retirement fund receives five per cent. of the excise moneys. San Francisco has what might also be termed a municipal pension system. The fund there consists of assessments on the teachers' salaries, gifts, legacies, and not less than half the sums forfeited by the teachers on account of absence. The fund is administered by the mayor, the superintendent of schools and the county treasurer.

No recent statistics on the subject of teachers' pensions are available. I have given a table from the Review of Reviews, Vol. 15, which shows several interesting things in regard to the number of teachers coming under the law, the different amounts of annuities granted, the number of years of service required before granting annuities, and other interesting things in regard to the system. The figures relate to the conditions in 1897.

The arguments against teachers' pensions are:

1. That they make teachers objects of charity, and hence the patrons of the schools have less respect for them. As a result their influence is greatly lessened. This objection could not apply when the fund is made up from contributions by teachers themselves.

2. It is asserted that the provision for pensions is not adequate, and that sooner or later the fund will be exhausted, causing those who have paid a per cent. of their salaries to lose all they have invested. Insurance experts assert this and in view of the fact that the managers of the fund are in many cases inexperienced, the ground for such assertion seems to be well taken. In Chicago the fund is in bad condition and must be put

on a new basis. This objection calls for an improvement in method and is not against the principle.

Several other arguments are urged against the system, but they apply more to the municipal pension system as a whole rather than to teachers' pensions.

The arguments in favor of teachers' pensions are:

1. Nearly all the advanced European countries have pensioned their teachers and have found that the system is an advantage to the community.

2. A few of our leading universities have pensioned their aged professors and quite a number of others have started a movement toward the same end. Quite recently Andrew Carnegie gave $10,000,000 for this purpose. Some leading foreign professors would come here if they had the assurance of a pension, but as it is they prefer to remain at home, on smaller salaries, with the certainty of a pension in their old days. Harvard University has a retirement fund of $311,399.35, the interest on which is used in granting annuities to her retired professors. Those retired get one-third their former salary. Since our universities think proper to pension their professors, why should we not pension the public servants less high in the profession?

3. The pension system secures a longer tenure of office for teachers.

4. Disabled teachers are weeded out and better talent is secured where there is the inducement of a provision for their old age.

5. Under a pension system, teachers would have comparative freedom from business cares and could render better service to the schools.

6. Teachers who are too old to serve continuously could be called upon to assist in some work or could serve as substitutes.

7. Pensions will enhance the dignity, attractiveness and efficiency of the public school service. Schools will be better taught and hence will be more economical in the long run.

8. Private corporations have found it profitable to pension their deserving employes and surely it would be as profitable to pension our public servants.

Literature in regard to the history of the police and firemen's pensions could not be obtained. All that I can say is they

are older than teachers' pensions. This may be due to the older idea in regard to military pensions — that men disabled in public service should be provided for. New York passed a law as early as 1871 providing for firemen's pensions and a law in 1878 pensioning her policemen. These were the earliest laws of which I found any account, although there may have been earlier ones.

The laws in regard to the police and firemen's pension system are very similar for all cities using them. The tables presented with this show the composition of the fund and the conditions under which pensions are granted. They also show that there is some variation in different cities in regard to the people pensioned. Some cities pension only retired and disabled policemen and firemen, while a few go further and pension the widows, orphans and even the dependent parents.

One objection to the system is that a great many retired policemen and firemen do not need pensions. Graft in some cities has been so common, particularly among policemen, that a pension seems a further injustice to taxpayers. These public servants in many cases retire in good circumstances and go into business.

Some of the arguments used against the system are very similar to those urged against teachers' pensions, and need not be repeated here.

The municipal pension system is a distinct step forward. Cities are becoming awakened to the fact that it pays to treat their public servants well. It is a blot upon a city to allow her former deserving servants either to suffer or to call upon charity. The cities that have pensioned their employes have a more stable and efficient service. The men in the fire department and police service are not all of the time looking for something better to do when their future is assured. Men will be more careful of their official conduct when they know that they are liable to be discharged for corrupt practices and thereby lose their chance for a pension. The charge that men make money in some other work after they have been retired is probably true in some cases, but surely a man may choose to do whatever he pleases after he has served his municipality faithfully for from twenty to thirty years.

The pension system is but a step in advance of societies al-

ready in existence. The teachers had and still have in many instances their different benefit and insurance associations. The firemen and policemen had their relief fund. Portions of the present pension funds came from the accumulations of these various associations. In nearly all cities under the present system, part of the pension fund is raised by deducting a certain per cent. of the salaries of the fire corps and police force. The pension system is a sort of combination between pensions and saving associations. This deduction removes the objection raised that it tends to make the recipient lose his self-respect. He feels that he is getting only what he deserves.

Briefly, by way of summing up, a few facts may be stated:

1. No nation has ever dealt so liberally with its veteran soldiers as has ours.

2. The fundamental idea of honorable care, without charity, for the soldier and those immediately dependent upon him is approved by the nation.

3. A proper pension system is in accord with the best public policy, a pledge of the nation for the welfare of her loyal sons.

4. Though the abuses are flagrant and inexcusable they are not a necessary part of the system.

5. The policy of municipal pensions for firemen and policemen has on the whole worked well. The principle is sound and the administrative errors can be corrected. By no possibility could private enterprise provide such security at similar cost in such hazardous occupations, and to leave it to the slow and uncertain chance of personal savings would be to throw the majority of the incapacitated and aged back on public charity. That would be a disgrace to the community.

6. Teachers and librarians are moving for pensions, and our greatest city has already found it economical and a means of securing better work to provide pensions.

The investigator will find numerous articles criticising the federal pension system and few explaining or commending it. The great facts that the nation has approved it; that it has so well stood the test of more than a century; that it is established — the greatest branch of our government service — and doing quietly and effectively its beneficient work, speak for them-

selves and require neither the pen of a defender nor further justification.

In conclusion I wish to express my appreciation of valuable aid in the preparation of this paper to Mr. James Dunn and Miss Laura Greely.[25]

---

* See Appendices C and D, pp. 612-617, for Charts of Pension and Retirement Funds and Bibliography on Government and Municipal Pensions.

XVI.

Minutes and Discussions.

The Thirty-third National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Philadelphia, May 9-16, 1906.

OPENING SESSION.

Wednesday Evening, May 9, 1906.

The meeting was called to order at 8:15 P. M. by Mr. J. G. Rosengarten, Vice-Chairman of the Local Committee on Arrangements.

MR. ROSENGARTEN:

Ladies and Gentlemen: We have come together for the opening of the Thirty-third Conference of Charities and Correction. The absence of Dr. Devine, as you all know, is due to the fact of his selection by the President and Secretary of War, to organize charity in much stricken San Francisco. There could be no greater tribute to the usefulness and wisdom of organized charity and of its study, than in their selection of such a man. In his absence I have the honor to inform you that this meeting will be presided over by that eminent citizen, the Honorable Grover Cleveland.

After prayer by Rev. Charles Wood, D. D., Mr. Cleveland took the chair and spoke as follows:

When the first murderer exclaimed, "Am I my brother's keeper?" he was heedless of the fact that his questioner was his all-seeing Creator who knew his heart and knew his crime. This impudent and futile attempt to mislead the limitless knowledge of God was made at a time when men were few upon the face of the earth, when their wants were simple and abundantly supplied on every hand directly by divine beneficence. There was then no question of the equal distribution of benefits, nor of equal opportunity, nor was there any place for charity in the world.

God has ordained that with the multiplication of the human race there should be a stupendous multiplication of human struggle. It is not without His notice that the millions of earth

are now jostling each other in the conflict for advantage, nor is He unmindful of those who in the strife, complacently attribute their success, however reached, to the survival of the fittest. It has also been within His purpose that, with all this, the wants of men should wondrously increase. But we should never for a moment forget that however much man's condition may have changed, God is still unchangeable, that His nature and attributes remain the same, and that His laws have not in the least been modified or relaxed. These laws He has applied to present conditions by decreeing that the intensity of man's contest for acquisition must be tempered by a recognition of man's interdependence, and that with the vast increase of human needs, those who in the rush of life are down-trodden or languish in sickness or affliction by the way side, shall know the ministrations of sweet charity.

We have met together to-day in obedience to this decree, and in recognition of the fact that in the spirit of charity we are indeed our brothers' keepers. Those who are the most active workers in the charitable field have come to this conference to review the results of past efforts and to take counsel with each other touching the extension and effectiveness of future labor. It is well, too, that others, less active but with charity in their hearts, are here, if haply they may be more fully inspired in the cause, and may better learn "the luxury of doing good."

This National Conference of Charities and Correction, in view of the object it seeks to accomplish, may well be described as a general clearing house of charitable and benevolent work. Through its constituent agencies it touches the individual, and through the betterment of the individual it serves the nation.

As often as the poor and needy are wisely and properly fed and clothed, not only is human want and misery relieved, and God's law of charity obeyed, but the grateful sentiment and the renewed interest in life aroused among the beneficiaries, together with the stimulation of sympathetic feeling among the benefactors, brings them all within a closer brotherhood of good citizenship.

As often as the sordidness of employers or the reckless selfishness and indifference of parents are routed in the battle against the wicked abuses of child labor, not only are careless mirth and cheerful health, the gifts of God, stolen from childhood, restored to the children of our land, but the nation regains the assurance that the embryo citizen thus redeemed will in due time be found among its sturdy, wholesome and contented supporters.

As often as sad-faced and forlorn orphans are gladdened by tenderness and wisely fostered and cared for, not only is the Father of the fatherless well pleased, but our country gains,

by so much as the promise of future thrift and usefulness is better than the degradation and vice threatened by the neglect of evilly surrounded orphanage.

As often as the dependent insane and mentally defective are humanely and kindly restrained, not only is the requirement placed upon those who have the least claim to charitable disposition fulfilled, and these unfortunates saved from the hopelessness of incurability, but society is protected against irresponsible tragedy and the country is given the only chance it can have for the improvement and restoration of submerged reason to sanity and mental strength.

As often as those who for transgression of the law have become convicted criminals, are made to feel that they have not been inexorably condemned to life-long ostracism and resentment, and that a kindly hand awaits any efforts of theirs for self-reformation, not only will those who benevolently aid and encourage them, be rewarded by an approving conscience, but they will save to the State many who can serve it well, and will protect it from those who, once disgraced, are easily driven by intolerance and angry neglect to a continuance in evil doing.

I have not attempted to recapitulate all the objects that benefit by charitable and benevolent efforts. Many others will be easily recalled. The relations I have suggested between such efforts and the public weal is made impressively apparent by the universality of the interposition of our state and local authorities in furtherance of the good work. While the appropriation of public funds in this direction is responsive to the best and most civilizing sentiment of our people, its complete justification depends upon the theory that such charitable work clearly subserves public interests.

My thoughts dwell upon the duty of individual charity. In a sense all that is done in discharge of this duty, whether done by individuals or through governmental agencies, representing us all, may be said to rest in personal responsibility, and may be traced to one source — a recognition of the fact that in the field of charity we are our brothers' keepers. At the same time, we should by no means give entrance to the idea that any action of public instrumentalities can absolve us from the exclusively individual obligation we owe to charity always present and never escapable except through full, complete and conscientious performance. The field is so large and the labor is so delicate that none of us can secure acquittance without personal service.

It is this element of personal service represented in this National Conference, that gives the occasion its greatest importance and significance. Here are gathered from widely separated localities men and women to whom it has been given to see and feel personal charitable duty in a way that inspires

them to persistent and unflagging devotion to charitable work. This of itself is sufficient to give impressiveness to this assemblage. But I know that you all deeply feel at this moment the influence of exceptional and strangely sad conditions, brought so near to us all, that they charge the atmosphere about us with an intense sympathy and consecrate anew the mission of charity. Your president, who embodies so completely and honorably your hopes, motives and aspirations, is not with us to-night. He has borne your flag — the flag of charity — to the desolation of San Francisco; and at this hour he represents you and your cause, among the homeless, the sick, the hungry, and the destitute. Let us hope that the spirit which animates his ministrations there, is with us here to stimulate our zeal and make us steadfast.

You who lead the forces of benevolence and charity are entitled to the support and encouragement of all, whether enlisted in the ranks or not, who recognize the obligations of human brotherhood. And I believe that brotherly love is a sentiment kept warm in the hearts of a vast majority of the American people. No better proof of this can be furnished than the tremendous outburst of relief that has followed the ravages of earthquake and fire on our Pacific coast.

And yet I fear it must be confessed that this sentiment of brotherly love is not universally manifested among us in the practical, constant and habitual way that it ought to be. The poor are always with us, the needs of the unfortunate are daily and hourly before us, and what may be called current distress is constantly at our doors.

The fact that "charitable finance" is one of the topics to be discussed at this Conference encourages me to give expression to a few reflections that have been considerably in my mind. I am by no means entirely out of sympathy with those who fear and lament the conditions which frequently accompany the accumulation of vast fortunes among our people. At the same time, I have no cause of quarrel with justly acquired wealth, nor lack of appreciation of the relationship it should bear to charitable work. It would certainly be foolish to shut our eyes to the fact that every good cause, however elevating and free from sordid motives it may be, must not less than purely material enterprises make a place in its calculations for financial aid.

This suggests the question of the individual contribution of money for charitable and benevolent purposes. It is far from my design to justify the wealthy who allow themselves, in their fretful anxiety for accumulation, to neglect their charitable obligations; and yet I am convinced that in a large majority of cases these our countrymen have not permitted the last spark of brotherly love to die in their hearts. As for those who have deliberately kept laid up in a napkin that which should be accounted for to charity, I am willing to leave them to the unre-

pealed condemnation which Christ's parable taught would be visited upon the faithless steward.

I have sometimes wondered if those active in charitable work fully appreciate how extensively, under the guise of charity, schemes are put on foot that are either so illegitimately related to it, or so unimportant and impractical, as to abundantly excuse a denial of their appeal for aid; and I often fear it is not realized as it should be in charitable circles that these schemes are presented so constantly and with such importunity, and so often prove to be unworthy, disappointing or faddish, as to perplex and discourage those willing to give to sensible and properly organized charity. It is thus that quite frequently all charitable movements are discredited or prejudiced. Even benevolent enterprises, entirely worthy in their purposes, have become so numerous that no one can be expected to contribute to them all; and in no case should those which only represent fads or whims and restricted ideas of benevolence, mistaken by kind-hearted promoters for genuine charitable impulse, be allowed to crowd out of place those which are beyond doubt meritorious and are organized on a broad, practical and effective basis.

We naturally lament any lack of cheerful, generous giving for the cause of charity; but let us not entirely forget that consistent and satisfactory giving is not wholly free from perplexity. I believe that thousands of our generously inclined people would be glad to be taught how to give and how to be protected against mistakes in giving.

I have spoken of the organization here represented as a "clearing-house of charitable and benevolent work." I hope I will not be misunderstood when I say that better assurance to those willing to give to charity, and consequently the interests of the cause, seem to be involved in the establishment somewhere, and under some responsible auspices of an agency for the sifting and testing of enterprises claiming to be charitable — to the end that the benevolent may have reliable guidance in determining how and where they can wisely and usefully give.

In conclusion I beg to congratulate you on the advance that has been made in the cause of charity, and to express my thanks for so near a view of your noble efforts. I congratulate you on your delightful enjoyment of doing good. May it remain with you and increase.

In a tribute to a noble woman who, after a life spent in the service of charity and humanity, has lately reached heavenly rest and peace, it has been written:

'So from her fresh-flowered grave —
Hers who all her beauty gave
Other lives to beautify,
Other ways to purify —

There shall spring a spirit-tree
In her loving memory,
'Till its top shall reach the skies,
Telling of her sacrifice.'"

The Chairman called on Hon. John Weaver, Mayor of Philadelphia, to present the first address of welcome:

MAYOR WEAVER:

As Mayor of the City of Philadelphia it gives me great pleasure to welcome, to the City of Brotherly Love, all the delegates to this Conference. When I had the pleasure a year ago to address to your Conference in Portland, a letter of invitation asking you to come to Philadelphia in 1906, we wanted the pleasure of not only welcoming you to the shrine of American Independence, but we were a little selfish. We wanted to know what you were doing in other cities in the matter of charities and correction. Philadelphia is perhaps just a little conservative. We don't care to make changes too rapidly; we want to be very sure of our ground before we move, but being sure, you may be sure that we shall move.

In the administration of charities there has been a great advance in the last century. We are no longer living in the time of the old English workhouse that Dickens so graphically portrayed in his Oliver Twist. We have changed the administration of charities even in our own cities. Since the first workhouse, as it was then called, was founded by the Quakers here, when those good souls thought it necessary that they should have worked on the arm of the inmates' coats a large P, to inform the populace that the wearer was a pauper, there has been a great advance and there is going to be a greater advance. I was glad to hear Mr. Cleveland say that sometimes charity is not rightly directed, that sometimes people were disgusted when they found that money, which they had contributed with a generous heart, had not been used for the purposes for which they gave it.

In what I am saying I don't want to detract one bit from the generous heart that gives to everybody that needs. That is perhaps better portrayed in those words of Oliver Goldsmith, in which he immortalized his own father and which also reflect his own character, when he says:

"His house was known to all the vagrant train,
He chid their wanderings but relieved their pain,
* * * * *
Careless their merits or their faults to scan,
His pity gave — ere charity began."

I would not detract one iota from the generous heart that is ready to share its last penny, or crust, with some poorer brother

or sister. We have been banishing from our streets the professional beggar. We prefer to make sure that what we give is properly directed, so we make use of the organized charities, those bodies of men and women who have made it their duty to investigate all cases, and find, not only those who beg, but those numerous, but far worthier cases, who do not.

This is not the only thing that you are going to consider at your Conference here. I want to pay a tribute to a part of your work which comes under the head of correction. The work that has been done in many cities of this country during the past few years, for the children in the development of the Juvenile Court. I see great possibilities for that. When the boys and girls grow up, perhaps we can even abolish our penitentiaries, our reformatories and our houses of correction. I want to pay at this time a special tribute to these probation officers in our own city, who devote all of their time to the investigation of the children who are arrested for committing crime. I trust that our city will come up abreast of other cities, not only in the Juvenile Courts, but in seeing that every child without any exception, is properly cared for and put in a proper home, and never taken to a house of correction or to a penitentiary.

And, now, again, giving to each one of the delegates to this convention the entire freedom of the city of Philadelphia, I wish you the greatest success in this your Conference and I trust that great good will come, not only to the city of Philadelphia, but to our blessed country, the United States of America.

An address of welcome was offered on behalf of the Local Committee by Mr. Talcott Williams, as follows:

The National Conference has come to Philadelphia for many purposes. Among them is that of celebrating the bi-centennial of the Philadelphia work house, to which you are all cordially invited.

The charitable and correctional institutions of the city are numerous and full of inmates. We have here tonight in the Academy of Music a vast audience. Yet this great hall could easily be filled six times over, by the tenants of the hospitals, almshouse, orphanages and homes for destitute children, defective children and insane. There are 1,200 charitable agencies in the city and a tithe of its assessed valuation is devoted to pious, charitable and educational uses.

These numbers seem great, yet in proportion to the population the number of destitute, defective and delinquent people is much less than it was in the early days of the city.

Under Mayor Thomas Lawrence in 1764 there were 220 paupers in the almshouse. The paupers were then 1 per cent. of the population of 20,000. Today neither paupers, sick nor insane are

one-fifth of 1 per cent. of the population of one and a half millions.

But numerous and well-equipped and conducted as most of our charitable agencies are, there is one need which they have, and which we hope this Conference may assist in supplying. The pressing and urgent need in our local charities today, a need which greatly hinders their advance and effective action, is the lack of mutual knowledge in regard to their condition and work, and the absence of some common body, in which their representatives can all meet. The most hopeful thing for the future of local charity is the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, presided over by the priestess of organized charity, Miss Mary Richmond, the general secretary.

In the not distant future, charity work will be developed along the line of prevention of the causes which today contribute so materially to its existence. Of the last sixty years, it is notable, that the first thirty were full of societies to distribute alms; the last thirty have been full of societies designed to suppress, forefend and anticipate the causes which produce the want with which we deal too often unavailably, because we come to our task too late. This is the work of the future. We propose to make this a city in which some child, already born, shall see the day when tuberculosis shall be as rare as smallpox is now. We propose to diminish blindness to a tenth of its present amount by dealing with the diseases which cause an overwhelming share of its occurrence. We propose to reduce deafness in the same proportion, by early care of catarrhal difficulties, to which so much of it is due, as that proceeding from scarlet fever and measles has been already reduced, and, having brought the number of the deaf to manageable proportions, to have them all come early to speak.

We propose to begin with the delinquent child before seven, instead of after fourteen, and to watch for the causes which will create crime, before they have destroyed character. Nothing that can be said can be a truer or more grateful welcome to you, our guests, than the announcement I am privileged to make, that the Department of Health in this city proposes to extend the medical inspection it is now conducting, of the pupils of the public schools, to that portion of the school population which falls into crime, or has to be protected against cruelty, or is placed in various special schools and institutions.

This work has already been begun with juvenile delinquents in their House of Detention. I know no city where any such systematic effort to find the exact physical condition of the delinquent and wayward child, the child rescued from cruelty, or in other ways detached from the normal process and working of society, has been begun. I am also glad to be able to announce that the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to

Children, welcomes this investigation, and proposes to facilitate it in the case of its 1,700 children yearly. In all there are from 10,000 to 12,000 children whom this inquiry will affect.

Given a city not far distant on our charitable horizon, from which tuberculosis and the contagious diseases of childhood are excluded, both today possible; in which other contagions have been curbed; in which every child has early physical examination on entering school and every want and lack of nature or defect is discovered and redressed; in which the unhealthy tenement is improved, child labor excluded and the community understands that having by cutting off child labor reduced the family income and turned the child from an asset into a liability, it must add to our education other cares and a wider help sufficient for childhood and adolescence; and we have a city from which the causes which require charity today are in great measure excluded. To such a city I unhesitatingly look forward when another centennial of the beginning of charity in this city in the almshouse comes,

In this city a hundred and nineteen years ago, was drawn up one of the most important documents which the world has ever seen. In the preamble to the Constitution of the United States, its object was declared to be "to form a more perfect Union." For a hundred years and more, we have been working towards that end. It is the end of statesmanship, it is the end of constructive and helpful charity. If we are succeeding, we are doing that which the fathers declared to be their purpose: we are forming a more perfect Union.

Mr. Robert W. de Forest, President pro tem., then took charge of the meeting and spoke as follows:

If the National Conference of Charities and Correction is welcome in Philadelphia, I can assure you in its behalf that Philadelphia is doubly welcome to the Conference.

We have frequently felt constrained to direct our steps toward particular cities from a sense of duty. There was propagandist work to be done. There were communities to be taught what present day charity meant and to what it had attained. There were those who needed an ocular demonstration of the progress made in organizing and co-ordinating the once separated, and because separated, feeble forces of humanitarian activity into a strong and united power.

To meet in such cities was a duty, and performance of duty is in a sense pleasurable if not always pleasant.

No such sense of duty, however, has brought us to Philadelphia, the city of Penn and of Franklin, the initial starting point of so much that is best and noblest in American humanitarianism. Coming to Philadelphia was like coming back to our old mother home. It gives us an opportunity to drink fresh inspiration from

the original source. Our mental attitude in coming here to Philadelphia has none of the acrid satisfaction of duty done, but the unalloyed pleasure of following our own desires.

But only a part of the Conference is meeting here. The other part is meeting in San Francisco. And meeting in San Francisco not for deliberation, but for action. For just that kind of action for which our thirty odd years of deliberation (this is the thirty-third meeting of the Conference) have made it fit and ready.

Early in the morning of the day after the California earthquake, when all we knew was that there had been an earthquake and that there was fire, Dr. Devine, the President of our Conference, came to my house. It was just as I was sitting down to breakfast. He came in, as he is accustomed to, unannounced. I knew why he had come before he had uttered a word. "Have you your ticket for San Francisco?" said I. "Not yet," said he. "You won't need any ticket," said I. "Meet me at 10 o'clock at the Mayor's office (where a few of us have been hastily summoned to take part in the organization of a relief committee), and be ready to start at once." "But how about the National Conference?" "Well," said Devine, "I think I can get back. If I can't get back it will be because there is more important work to do in San Francisco than there would be in Philadelphia. Anyhow, my part of the work is done, even to my President's address, and if I don't get back I shall after all only miss the applause; that is, if there be any." He has not come back, but I do not think he will miss the applause.

It was only after he was well on his way that the full extent of the disaster became known, and that he was appointed by the President and by Secretary Taft special agent in charge of relief work in California. It then became his duty to stay, and his duty no less to this National Conference than to the country and himself.

He has tendered his resignation as President, but we have declined to accept it, because we deem it fitting that this National Conference of Charities, in his person, should not only be, but be known to be, directing the most stupendous task of charity with which this country has ever been confronted.

I have just received this telegram from him:

"While there is great desolation in San Francisco, there are favorable conditions. Among them are, the absence of chronic pauperism, the presence of extraordinary individual initiative, the co-operation of the army, the concentration of relief funds, the sanity and courage of mayor and citizens, and the aid of the newspaper press.

"There will be constructive work here, however appalling the magnitude of the task of immediate relief.

"Sincere regrets at absence, and gratitude to the Local and

Conference Committees! Their splendid work will see it through to a great success."

Nor is Devine the only one of our leaders who has been called away to these higher duties. Ernest P. Bicknell, general secretary of the Associated Charities of Chicago, went to San Francisco with Devine, and Dr. Frankel, general manager of the United Hebrew Charities in New York, has followed him. Mary Roberts Smith, head worker of the South Park Settlement of San Francisco, was on the spot. Of course, she has staid there. All these are chairmen of their respective standing committees.

We intend to carry out this Conference in their name and pursuant to their plans.

Think what it means for our officers to have received a national summons to lead the forces of relief at this time of our country's need. The summons came to them unsought. It came to them because they were best fitted to the task. It came to them because their fitness was recognized. Could that have happened before the trained thinkers and workers of this Conference had begun to meet together, and to co-ordinate their knowledge and their efforts? I think not. The meaning of this summons, its message to the trained workers of this Conference — men and women who have made charity — that is, love for their fellowmen — their profession, and who have consecrated themselves to that profession with the same painstaking study and practice with which men fit themselves for other professions, is that knowledge and experience and capacity are recognized in America as essential to successful humanitarian effort — that the time when mere good intention was deemed such a qualification, is forever past, — that the trained workers of organized and organizing charity have "made good." New dignity and a new consecration have been added to your calling.

MR. JEFFREY R. BRACKETT: — *Mr. Chairman:* May something to be done which I know everyone in this great audience wishes? May this message be sent to-night to Edward T. Devine, Red Cross, San Francisco, California: "Great opening meeting of your Conference sends greeting. You are missed, but your stay in San Francisco is approved. Congratulations on your great public service."

MR. WINES: — I desire to second the motion.

(Motion put to vote and unanimously carried.)

Mr. deForest then introduced Mr. Henry B. F. Mcfarland as follows:

Mr. Macfarland is one of the veterans of the Conference. He was Chairman of the Local Committee when the Conference met in Washington, in 1901, and he was one of the active members of the Committee when the Conference met in

Washington, as far back as 1885. His face is known to everyone of us who has attended this Conference.

HON. HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND: — The atrocious crime of being an old man, I shall now attempt to deny in view of the personal allusion which Mr. deForest has so humorously made. In order to remove at once all suspicion that I am a veteran, I shall say that I was born in Philadelphia in 1861, and that this Conference was born when I was only twelve years old. The only veteran, the only surviving founder of the Conference, Dr. Frederick H. Wines, having had some mysterious information in advance that I was to be introduced as the veteran of the Conference, has already withdrawn.

Mr. Mayor, and Mr. Williams, I accept on behalf of the Conference the freedom of the city, the invitation to the almshouse, the compliments and the praise which you have been kind enough to offer to it. I did the same thing myself in Washington, although there no one needs the freedom of the city, for every American is free born to the National Capital. And I assure you, sir, that you will never regret having offered to us these great privileges for we shall not abuse them. (I myself leave on the midnight train. While it is true that I hope to attend next Monday evening to read a serious and solemn paper to this very serious and solemn body I shall hope to leave again on the midnight train.)

It was because a lady from Philadelphia invited this Conference to come here to learn of you that the Conference really came. I say frankly that we have come here as learners. I expect to get my lesson in a very brief space of time because that is necessary under my peculiar circumstances, but in the course of the week the other members of the Conference will learn and learn and learn, for that is the characteristic attitude of the Conference. They have been, speaking of them collectively, learning and learning and learning during the lifetime of the Conference, and yet they are not like those learners who were always learning and never coming to the knowledge of the truth, for these learners do come to the knowledge of truth. But they are learning new truths; they have the open mind. In looking over a volume of the reports of this Conference, nothing is more interesting than to see the gradual change of opinion, and the frank admission of it, on the part of those who have been all through these years, the leaders in this Conference. And at the same time there has gone hand-in-hand with this scientific inquiry, this determination to know the facts which is characteristic of our age, the determination to put into action the truth learned, as quickly and as effectively as possible even at the risk of making mistakes. These men and women, whether they be of Boards of Charities, or of State or County or Municipal Institutions, or of public or private societies, or those who give their aid without

official relation to any of those things, do not spend their time in learning without effect, but they are putting their knowledge into profitable use. Now, that suggests again the thought that is constantly flung in our faces by the humorous and by some of the serious, the coldness of scientific charity, the uncharitableness of organized charity. Over and over again Tom Hood's lines are quoted of many of these institutions which are represented here:

"O the rarity of Christian charity."

And thousands of intelligent, educated and well-meaning people still withhold their sympathy and support from this Conference and what it represents, because they cannot get over the idea that those who insist upon knowing the facts, and acting upon well-reasoned principles, are cold and heartless persons. Now, this Conference is in itself an answer to those critics because in these thirty-three years, the members of the Conference changing from time to time but always typically the same, have learned even to be charitable to the charitable, which is a very difficult thing sometimes.

One of the beauties of this Conference is, that it is a real Conference, an open parliament of ideas, not a place for creeds and dogmas, not a convention, not binding upon any conscience or any man, but a true Conference.

The real spirit of charity is no new thing. It is not confined even to the City of Brotherly Love. There were charities in the world before the Philadelphia Almshouse was founded. The charitable spirit is at least nineteen hundred years old and I believe it goes back to the dawn when the angels of God sang together for joy. It is that spirit of love which is perfectly set forth in the Thirteenth Chapter of Corinthians. It is the spirit which makes it possible for men and women to work together in a Conference, in societies, in institutions, in spite of their human nature for the aid of those who need help.

The remarkable thing which is not seen by the blind critics who talk only of our materialism or of our science, is, that this is of all ages, the age of faith and the age of idealism, the age of love. Never before in any period of the world's history were there so many men and women who were giving their lives for the help of others, for the highest ideals, for the best welfare of their country. We who have seen this Conference grow from nothing to what it is to-night may well refuse to despair, when we think of what is being done by those whom we would present as types of the real social worker of our time.

This Conference has been called many things, The Church of the Divine Humanity, The Church of the Neglected Fragments, but I think that it will be called, after this night, the Conference of Brotherly Love, inspiring study and direction by the scientific spirit which helps the spirit of the Good Samaritan.

THE CHAIRMAN: — His Honor, Mayor Weaver, reminded the Conference that it was not only the Conference of Charities but the Conference of Correction. You will find, I think, when you hear Judge Mack that the element of correction in the Conference is only the most refined kind of charity. I have the pleasure of introducing the last speaker of the evening, the Hon. Julian W. Mack, Judge of the Juvenile Court of Chicago and President of the Jewish Conference of Charities which has just met and adjourned in this city.

JUDGE MACK: — Dr. Devine did his work for this Conference before he went to San Francisco and he did it well. He has clearly and forcibly struck the dominant note of the modern philanthropy in the admirable paper that he was to have read and that has been placed in your hands to-night. We come together year after year and consider how we may better our institutions and what new institutions we shall erect to help the suffering, to give hope to the despairing, to do the works of charity. We devise all sorts of new methods. We bring a new tone into the discordant elements of our criminal jurisprudence when we establish the Juvenile Court, and we do much good thereby. But in the end all this is palliative. We are simply taking the wrecks of humanity and patching them up. The real work, the dominant work, of modern philanthropy lies in prevention, not in cure. It lies in bringing all of our charitable efforts in close relation with the great fundamental, underlying, social problems. We must work, and study and work again, to eradicate the causes of distress; we must work not for our own generation alone, but for future generations that they may be spared the troubles that we, in our petty ways, are endeavoring to alleviate.

Take the problem of tuberculosis. In this whole great country we have beds for eight thousand patients in our sanatoria and hospitals for consumptives, and in the city of Philadelphia, in four months, eight thousand new cases of consumption are reported. What good does it do to cure? If we could even cure the eight thousand hospltal patients! What good does it do to spread all over the land those rules and regulations which will tend to check the spread of the disease? What good do all our remedies for social wrongs and social injustice do, unless we root out the underlying causes, unless we tear down the hovels in which the disease is bred? Shall we let the landlord's profit stand in the way; shall we let the cursed greed for wealth prevent the undoing of the wrong to human society? Shall we not study those problems of sociology and economy on which all of our charity work must be built up and having studied, shall we not demand that the wrongs be undone? Demand that the State exercise its great power to suppress public nuisances and that evils be checked, delinquency be stopped at the very roots, instead

of when the child is seven or when the child is fourteen, as the Juvenile Court tries to do.

I don't say that we should neglect the problems of our own generation; we should make our institutions better; we should do the work that the Juvenile Court is doing, but we should never forget that this is not the real work of saving mankind, that it is all only palliative and not in the proper sense preventive. That is the dominant note as Dr. Devine points out of the modern philanthropy.

Mr. Williams has referred to the Conference of Jewish Charities whose sessions have been just closed and to the burden that the Jews have taken upon themselves in connection with the immigrant problem. The Jews have taken a burden and they have taken it gladly. It has been a fundamental principle with them ever since they came to this country, two hundred and fifty years ago, before the time of William Penn but shortly after the time of the Puritan and the Cavalier, that they would take care of their own. Neither do they separate in their work, for when it comes to lifting the problems that burden the whole community, they join with head and with heart and with purse, freely, fully in every uplifting movement of philanthropy. The burden of immigration that they have assumed is a great one because to-day it is the Jew and the Jew alone who is the victim of that religious bigotry which still exists in Russia. Driven from Russia, their co-religionists seek a home and seek help in America, and the American Jew, ever alive to his duty, gladly extends it. But not as a Jew does he stand for the open door in immigration, — as an American, an American whose ancestors settled here two hundred and fifty years ago. He says America will be false to its history, false to the best that is in its people, if it should ever close its doors to the victims of political oppression or religious bigotry. He says, not as a Jew but as an American, that we need the immigrant just as much as the immigrant needs us. He says, not as a Jew but as an American, that he and you are all immigrants in this land and that God did not create this land for the first of us who should have the great fortune to have come here, but that He reserved it for all mankind.

This Conference is certainly to be congratulated upon having chosen Philadelphia as its place of meeting, Philadelphia, the mother city of American liberty, whose citizens have shown that though the American people may be long-suffering and endure much, the time will surely come when they will awaken to the wrongs of society; they will arise in their might and crush the scoundrels who are trying to cheat them of the fruits of their labors. And the people of Philadelphia are to be congratulated that this Conference whose dominant note is preventive philanthropy, is holding its session here. Philadelphia, awakened to its rights, eager for new light in all the social movements of to-day,

will be glad to take up the lessons that may be learned from the experts throughout the land at this Conference and apply them to her own conditions. Then when Philadelphia shall lead us on as she did in the days of the Revolution, she will lead on all the American cities to a proper appreciation of their municipal duties and to a proper realizaton that only by preventing wrongs, only by eradicating evils, only by supplanting them with the good, shall we bring about human progress. Philadelphia joining hands with all the other cities of the country will surely bring about that day, if not for us at least for our children, or our children's children, when with a brighter dawning they may cry out with the poet, "God's in His Heaven, all's right with the world."

MINUTES OF THE SESSIONS.

First General Session.

Thursday Morning, May 10.

The Conference was called to order at 10:30 A. M. by President pro tem. Robert W. deForest.

Mr. deForest: — *Ladies and Gentlemen:* It becomes my duty, under the rules of the Conference, to appoint a committee of three on resolutions. The rule reads: "It shall be the duty of the president to appoint a committee of three on resolutions, to which all resolutions shall be referred without debate." I will appoint on that committee the following gentlemen: Mr. John M. Glenn, ex-President of the Conference; Mr. Frederick H. Wines, ex-President of the Conference, and Mr. A. W. Butler.

This meeting is now open for business and business other than that brought forward by the Secretary. Is there anything to come before the meeting?

There being apparently no business, I will declare the business meeting closed. The regular session will be opened by prayer by Dr. John C. Lee.

AFTER PRAYER.

Mr. deForest: — As those of you who were here last night already know, Dr. Lee K. Frankel, Chairman of the Committee on Needy Families in their Homes, like the President of the Conference, has been drafted to San Francisco. His place has been taken by another member of the Committee, who has been elected its Chairman, Mr. Frederic W. Almy, of Buffalo, Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of that city. I take pleasure in introducing Mr. Almy, and the remaining portion of this morning's session will be presided over by him and be under his charge.

NEEDY FAMILIES IN THEIR HOMES.

MR. ALMY: — The loss of this Conference is very great through the absence in San Francisco of Mr. Frankel, Chairman of this section. I am glad that the first paper of the general session is one so unusual and so suggestive as this of Dr. Frankel's, which I have the privilege of reading.

Dr. Frankel's paper, being the report of the Committee on Needy Families, was then read. (See p. 325.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — We will now have a paper by Mr. Edwin D. Solenberger, General Manager Associated Charities, Minneapolis, Minn., on "Relief Work of the Salvation Army."

Mr. Solenberger read his paper. (See page 349.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — The discussion will be opened by the Rev. Henry H. Rose, Vice-President Newark Associated Charities.

MR. ROSE: — Mr. Solenberger has given us a paper which ought to make us think. He has taken great pains to get at the facts and we owe it to him to give them serious consideration.

There is no task more disagreeable to me than that of having to criticise a religious organization unfavorably, and especially the Salvation Army, for which I have an honest and hearty admiration. I never want to be a stumbling block in the path of any body of earnest, religious people when they are trying to make this old earth better. "If the world is so bad with religion, what will it be without it?" We have need, then, of great care in saying anything or doing anything to discourage or hinder a body of religious enthusiasts in their noble work.

But, at the same time, it is necessary for us, as men and women sincerely interested in doing all kinds of religious and philanthropic work in a thoroughly scientific manner, to reason with any and all organizations that need correction and advice. It is even necessary for us to go farther and insist that such organizations do philanthropic work in the right way, or stop asking the public to support them.

We have all admired the manner in which the Salvation Army has sent its fearless and self-sacrificing men and women down into the worst places of our cities and turned thousands from vice to virtue, from black despair to radiant hope and from criminal ways to ways of honest citizenship. That kind of work has created the impression in the public mind, that the Salvation Army is a society of Good Samaritans, which asks no questions about creed or color or conditions, but simply goes about administering to whoever it finds on the Jericho Road of Life, and then

turns to the public and asks it to help pay for the oil and wine and the care at the inn. I am sure that this is the impression with the public generally, and it is one great reason that the people give so cheerfully and so generously to the organization.

But a candid study of the facts will show that the public is mistaken in two important respects. First, it is mistaken in supposing that the Salvation Army is a non-sectarian movement. It is as much of a denomination as the Baptists or Methodists or Presbyterians or any other Protestant sect. It is not doing Good Samaritan work solely and purely from the love of such work, but as a part of its plan to build up a powerful denomination in the United States. When you and I and other citizens hear the Army on the street or see its women down amid the slums, we look upon them as if they were evangelists or revivalists trying to turn men and women from wickedness, and then advising them to join any church in which they may have been brought up or for which they may have a preference. But such is not the case. The steadfast purpose of the speakers is to gather the converts into the Salvation Army Church. Major Thomas Stamfoy, writing from the National Headquarters in New York City, in reply to a letter on this very point, says, frankly: "We do not object to people going to church who come to our penitent form to get converted, but like every other church we prefer to hold them if possible."

Now no one can object to the policy of the Salvation Army to build up as strong a denomination as it can, but they may and should object to its standing before the country as if it were a non-sectarian religious body. For this is what it does, whether wittingly or unwittingly, when it appeals to the public for financial support, either by letters through the mails or by women who ask for it, inside or outside the stores and offices and in various other ways.

If the people, generally, were aware of its sectarian character and ambitions, it is problematical if they would contribute to it as they do. They contribute because they say to themselves: "Here is a non-sectarian movement and I ought to help it."

But another motive for this public support is the feeling of admiration that people have for a body of men and women who are doing the kind of relief work the Salvation Army seems to be doing. People say to themselves: "What a noble service the Army is rendering, down among the poor and outcast of the land." But here again the public needs enlightenment. Here it is also mistaken. The work itself is noble in intent, but is it being done properly?

Looked at from the outside and from a purely sentimental viewpoint, the work the Army is doing is beautiful; it appeals decidedly and powerfully to every one with a heart. But looked at critically and in the light of the question: "Is this relief work

really relieving and ridding the community of poverty and vice?" it becomes problematical. Simply because the work is not being done scientifically. It is carried on in a sentimental manner, and it would also seem that monetary considerations enter into it. Let me explain.

The Salvation Army is a religious sect with a social program, but a social program by no means scientifically worked out or applied. It has its industrial homes, lodging houses, day nurseries, laundry rooms, rescue homes, farm colonies, Christmas dinners and so forth. These are superb institutions *per se* and might be made tremendous engines for good if properly handled. But from Mr. Solenberger's paper and from other data readily obtainable, it is clear that they are not being thus handled. They either do not reach the right people — the people who need help the most — or they do not reach them in such a way as to permanently reform their character.

The fault, as I see it, lies in two things. One is the need the Salvation Army has of money. The other is the sentimental spirit of the Salvation Army.

This need of money, coupled with the ambition to build up another property-holding sect, compels the Army to use such auxiliaries as its industrial homes, lodging houses and farm colonies as revenue-producers rather than character-makers. They do reform many a character, but that is not the first, prime and constant consideration. The soldiers of the Army are very poor (and to their eternal credit be it said, they are also very self-denying). They cannot contribute the money which is necessary to carry out the ambitious relief program of their officers. Hence the money must be gotten from the public, either by direct solicitation or through the departments of social work in the way of profits. The fact is probably this, that the departments yield very little surplus, so that the public is made to keep the wheels revolving. Yet some of the departments, like the industrial homes and farm colonies do yield a surplus. At any rate they are expected to yield a surplus.

The result is inevitable. The manager of an industrial home or lodging house gradually forgets that his business should be to save men, and is led to think that it is to procure dollars. Consequently the industrial homes, lodging houses and the rest, deteriorate into purely business propositions. And instead of decreasing poverty, beggary and shiftlessness, they leave the problem where it is or they even increase and complicate its phases.

I took occasion to look into this matter somewhat carefully in my own city. I visited the Salvation Army Industrial Home and its lodging houses to see what was actually the spirit animating them, and found it to be the spirit just described.

For instance. The industrial home in Newark is certainly an attractive place. It is in a well lighted and well ventilated

brick building. It will accommodate fifty or more men night after night, and furnish them with food. It sends them out with wagons to gather up old papers, magazines, books, clothing, furniture and so forth, which it solicits from the public by sending postal cards through the mails. The old clothes and junk are auctioned off about every day of the week, to the Italians and other poor people who attend the sales. The papers and magazines are gathered up in bales and sold to the paper mills. The industrial home is like a second-hand shop, but it has the advantage over private second-hand shops in that it pays nothing for its wares. It employs the men who come to it in gathering and in selling the things mentioned. It gives them three meals and a bed. It pays them fifty cents to a dollar a week in cash. This small sum is given on the theory that they will be the sooner induced to go away and find more lucrative work. But if a man applies for work and there is none, he is turned away. No work is made for him unless it will yield a profit to the home. If a man shows himself valuable, he is kept on just as long as the manager can induce him to stay, and some men are there practically all of the time. The manager told me that they were using the profits, some of them, to pay the mortgage on the building. Religious services are held and there are fine mottoes on the walls of the sleeping and dining rooms and I doubt not many a man is tided over and started on an industrious career. But the first necessity upon the manager is to make the home pay, so that his one thought cannot be to get hold of needy men and straighten them out.

The Salvation Army lodging houses in Newark are also business propositions. They are not paying, according to the attendants, but that is what they are there for and if they do not pay there will be serious talk of abandoning them. If a man applies for a lodging and has no money, he is given a bed and it is charged to charity. So that a man could go from one lodging house to another and by taking in the cities could live probably a year without paying a cent and then start the tour all over again. There is a room where religious services are held and converts are reported to the headquarters in New York. But nothing is done to make the room attractive. There are no papers, magazines or books. There is nothing about the place to suggest a home or incline the thoughts of those who frequent it to higher things. I asked the attendant why there were no papers and books and so forth and he answered: "We don't want the bums hanging around. We mustn't make it too attractive." There is no question that the lodging houses are infested with bums — the odor is sickening! — but at the same time if the Salvation Army were in dead earnest about the salvation of souls and the reconstruction of character, would it not follow up even the bums and strive intelligently and persistently to elevate them

or make it harder for them to gouge the public by using their free or low priced beds and living like vampires upon the public?

The other serious trouble with the Salvation Army is the sentimental spirit in which it does its relief work, where not actuated by this practical purpose of raising money. It is fundamentally a band of optimists. No more splendid and self-sacrificing body of men and women exists in our land. The soldiers are big hearted and good natured one toward another and toward all mankind. They believe that the Lord will provide, and they are not apt to worry about results They also go on the theory that the Lord will take care of the harvest if they only scatter the gospel seed. And so they do not seem to see the need of experts in control of each one of their relief institutions. They have not seen the need of Conferences such as we are holding here. They do not work in conference and close co-operation with the Bureaus of Associated Charities in their own communities. They do not feel the need of any of these things. And they seem to forget that the world has made scientific progress in its methods of grappling with the problems of poverty and vice, so that it is now laying hold of their causes and throttling them, whereas it used to be content with giving palliatives.

In short, the Salvation Army, like almost every other church that undertakes social or relief work, is in it with its heart more than with its head. And it is this that makes it unpleasant to say all these frank and critical things. For, God knows, we need all the people with hearts that this old world can provide, and we need them right down among the penniless and depraved.

Yet we may level our criticisms in all conscience and kindness because it is not impossible for the heart and the head to work together! In fact, it is a very possible thing and a very necessary thing. George Eliot makes one of her characters exclaim: "Thank God, I am constitutionally superior to reason!" Now I do not think the Salvation Army is in that obstinate or conceited frame of mind. I hope and believe it is open to reason and to new light. And I trust that one of the practical results of this frank and full and friendly discussion will be to cause its officials to range themselves alongside of the best informed, most progressive, and most successful workers in these lines.

Under the circumstances it seems eminently fair that this Conference suggest and even insist on these four things:

First, that the Salvation Army account to the local public for funds received locally and expended locally.

Second, that it provide for the auditing of its local accounts by outside disinterested parties.

Third, that it provide for a local Board of Control the same as other charities.

Fourth, that it give up "free lance" charity work and begin cheerful co-operation with the Bureau of Charities and all other

philanthropic institutions in every community where it unfurls its banner and begins its work.

The day is past when the members of a Conference like this can sanction that independence on the part of any organization by which it refuses to pay any attention to other organizations working along the same lines and for the same ends. If the Salvation Army will get into line with the rest of the noble agencies of the country and link arms with them in this work of human amelioration, the time will speedily come when it too will prove a mighty force for true and lasting social progress. But as it is now the Salvation Army with all of its splendid impulses and its bands of self-denying men and women, is really interfering with many of the causes it designs to help. I know that its officers do not see it in this light, but if they will consider the whole situation dispassionately, thoroughly and in the light of scientific philanthropy, I believe they will see it.

Someone has said:

> "So many Gods, so many creeds,
> So many paths that wind and wind,
> While all the art this old world needs
> Is just the art of being kind."

That is a beautiful sentiment, but it is not wholly true. The old world needs sanity in connection with kindness. It needs noble impulse harnessed to broad wisdom and scientific procedure. It needs the giving of much more than silver and gold or a shelter in the time of storm. It needs charity with heart in it, but charity that shall be systematic and scientific; based upon careful study of human conditions and upon principles educed after years of patient experience with human frailty. All churches are guilty more or less of undiscriminating and harmful charity and the Salvation Army may be no worse than the rest, save only that it is doing it on a vaster scale and is appealing to the public to finance its work. It has no business to ask the public for money until it is able to spend that money in the very best way known to human judgment and experience. The hour has struck for a new order of things. Let us hope that this discussion may lead the new order in.

Brigadier Alexander M. Damon, of New York, representig the Salvation Army: I very much regret that I was unaware of the exact departments of Salvation Army work that were to be touched upon this morning. Had I been aware I should have come prepared to give an answer for the hope that is within me and the hope that fills the breast of every Salvationist in this country.

Mr. Solenberger has spoken well. He has, shall I say, attacked a certain department of the Salvation Army work in Minneapolis. Undoubtedly Mr. Solenberger has had opportunity to

investigate the work of the Salvation Army and what it is doing in its industrial branch. Nevertheless, after such investigation, he has made certain statements which, after sixteen years of service under the flag of the Army, I could not as a proper Yankee and a Massachusetts boy, allow to pass without standing up against and denying. Let me read two or three lines from a gentleman who resides in Minneapolis, concerning the finances of the industrial home in that city. This gentleman wrote for some reports. The reports were sent to him and this is his reply after receiving the reports and looking over them:

> "My Dear Mr. ———: I meant to acknowledge before now the receipt of a number of your reports in regard to the industrial department of the Salvation Army work in Minneapolis. It seems to me to be a particularly fine showing that you have made in making this entirely self-supporting and that the old waste has been handled by you in such an economical way that you have even been able to be of assistance in the other departments of the Salvation Army work."

This is concerning finances and it is signed "Edwin D. Solenberger," the gentleman who has spoken here this morning. As I have already told you, I have come unprepared. Had I known, I would have been prepared to come here and tear to pieces bit by bit many of the statements that have been made here this morning. I am not filled with such egotism that I think the Salvation Army is perfect. As long as the organization is made up of human beings, it will be impossible for us to be perfect. Why haven't we scientific labor, why haven't we individuals who are able to compile statistics with such accuracy it is possible to stand up before an audience and give them out, off the reel? Because we haven't the money. It is impossible for us to pay the officer who has charge of the social operations in a city like Philadelphia, four or five or six thousand dollars a year salary. He must be content with sufficient money to meet his ordinary expenses. This is why we haven't the scientific labor that is necessary to have accurate reports.

Am I talking over my time, Mr. Chairman? Please allow me to have two or three minutes over the time. I think it is only fair that the Salvation Army should be allowed to answer.

MR. SOLENBERGER: — I move the time be extended five minutes. Agreed to.

MR. DAMON: — Mr. Solenberger's statement that the Reliance Trading Company and the Industrial Homes Company, of the Salvation Army, are incorporated, is correct. They were

incorporated that we might secure the necessary funds to extend the work that we felt needed to be extended. We pay 6% on the money invested in the stock and we are not ashamed of it. Who can borrow money at much less than 6%. The money is used in the department for which it is secured. The Army has published its balance sheet in New York. This balance sheet is audited by an outside man, who has no connection with the Salvation Army. He is paid for his services, and he does not only check the balances, but he has access to every single voucher. The commander of the Salvation Army or any other officer, at the national centre or any other centre, cannot draw a fifty-cent piece unless he or she signs a voucher, which is there on file.

If we had the capital we would take thousands of people who are indigent in the great cities, and place them upon lands and give them an opportunity to work out their own salavation and make a living out of the soil. Mr. Rider Haggard, the noted English author, came to this country a few months ago representing the government of Great Britain. It was thought by that government, that the Army work in the colonies department was of such importance that they should appoint a commission to travel twenty thousand miles to observe what we were doing. Mr. Rider Haggard visited these colonies and returned to Great Britain. He published the results of the investigation in the form of a government blue book. The commission commended the work the Salvation Army was doing and wondered how it was possible for the Army to do it without the financial backing that was really necessary for such a scheme, recommending that the government go in for the same kind of work on a gigantic scale and that they use the Salvation Army as the agent to carry it out.

I have letters from men who have been converted, men who have been taken from the gutters, from the slums, men who have been outcasts, who have come into our institutions and been rescued. Whatever the Salvation Army does, it wants to reach the hearts of these people and bring them to God.

Reference has been made to our Christmas dinners. A man came to our dinner in Chicago. He was a business man, but got down through drink. A few days before he was robbed and kicked out of a saloon. We brought him to a table and after that one of our people took him to his own home. Two years after that a man came to one of our officers in Cincinnati and said: "I am the man the Army took hold of and gave me a Christmas dinner in Chicago and helped me. I want to pay for that dinner," and he took out forty dollars in gold and gave it to the officer.

THE CHAIRMAN: — We shall have to adjourn in ten minutes. It is not unusual for a paper that is read one year to be

answered the following year. But we will have another speaker for the Salvation Army as we still have eight minutes.

DAVID L. WITMER, Philadelphia: — I wish to speak in behalf of fair play. I am not a member of the Army, but I wish to speak of one house on Eighth street, above Vine, which is one of the houses harboring men every night. As one of the workers in the Gallilean Mission, on Vine street, we haven't room for all the men and we take some of them to the Salvation Army. Speaking of the Salvation Army as being denominational, I believe with all my heart they are only leading souls to Christ. That is the main rock on which all our churches are built. So far as this industrial work is concerned, clothing and such like, it is right that every organized charity ought to make people pay for what they get to a certain extent. I believe the Salvation Army to-day is doing a wonderful work. I could tell another case of a man who was a low down drunkard, poor as he could be, but was brought to a temperate life and led to the feet of his Savior through the Salvation Army.

BRIGADIER A. J. PARKER, St. Louis: — Something over twenty-one years I have been working in the organization I have the pleasure of representing this morning. I am not a platform speaker, but there are a few errors I think I might correct. When I first became associated with the Army, I knew nothing of its work aside from beating the drum and jangling the tambourine upon the street corners, to attract the people to its evangelical meetings. The Army had then no social operations in this country. But as we have grown from weakness to strength, we have been trying to learn how to meet the needs of the poor in the best and most scientific manner, and, though we may be somewhat innocent, I ask you to be patient with us, for possibly some day in the distant future we shall know how to do it as scientifically as the honorable members of this Conference. We are very ready to learn. Each year we have our annual congress, which will convene in New York in a few days from now, and session after session will be given up to speakers, representing all parts of this country, who know local conditions and who may suggest better methods to the Army. The Army has never yet closed the door to suggestion.

It is a significant fact, new and surprising perhaps to many to know that General Booth had very little to do with the formation and development of the departments of the Salvation Army. It has been accomplished by the people under him in this country who knew the conditions here. We are not ordered from national headquarters. We go ahead and do the best we can and we ask you to be patient with us if we don't do it in an organized way.

I believe the time is not a great way off when the Salvation Army will co-operate more freely with every other branch of

charity work. We have been glad to co-operate with the charity organizations in New York City, and I think that is so of some other cities. Our lodging houses are not conducted for their commercial value. They are conducted at a loss. Our directors have stated, over and over again, that they must be kept up to a certain standard whether they pay expenses or not.

Mr. Rose could have told you that from every lodging house there comes a weekly report of the meetings held, of each man who professes conversion in these meetings, and there must be two meetings a week besides other services. I think it is also a significant fact that out of all the dinners given, which Mr. Solenberger speaks of, every name was investigated. We knew before the dinner was delivered that the family was in need of it. Applications were turned down where they were found to be from duplicators.

If there is one time when we are good-hearted it is at Christmas time and we do throw open the doors and bid every man come in whether he deserves it or not. We say come in and we will fill you up for once on Christ's birthday. Perhaps it is wrong that we should open the balconies and allow people to come in and look down. It is done in New York, but I don't know that they do it at other places. The people who have the cash in their pockets should know that these things exist and that these poor souls are starving. Our hope is that they may go back and pour out their money, to you, or to us, or the churches, or somebody else, to meet these conditions.

I haven't time to go into details regarding our finances, but they are open to the world and if you want to investigate them we will show you every dollar we have received for Christmas dinners and for our other institutions, and, where these institutions have turned over any profit, where every dollar of that profit has been spent. I have been closely associated with the Army for some years and there are no men in responsible positions compensated up to their full value.

If you will look me up or write me at the headquarters in New York I will see you have the disposition of the forces of the Salvation Army in the United States, that gives you the name and location and name of manager and matron, of every Army institution in the United States. I should judge from the wide difference between the different statements Mr. Solenberger has presented that he has gotten hold possibly of some national pamphlets and of some provincial pamphlets. This is a big country and he may have gotten hold of one for the eastern part of the country, or possibly one that included the whole world.

THE CHAIRMAN: — This discussion will be continued at next year's conference, and this meeting will be adjourned until this afternoon at three o'clock.

FIRST GENERAL SESSION (Continued at 3 P. M.)

The Conference was called to order at 3 P. M. by Chairman Almy.

THE CHAIRMAN: —

I have the pleasure of introducing to you Dr. S. E. Forman, of Washington, D. C., who will speak on "Standards of Living."

Dr. Forman read his paper. (Page 342.)

Sherman C. Kingsley, General Superintendent Chicago Relief and Aid Society, opened the discussion as follows:

Dr. Forman's paper has clearly portrayed some of the obstacles with which the very poor must contend and the cruel disadvantage at which they are placed by the force of circumstances. That those who are least able should be compelled to pay high prices and receive in return stale food, unsanitary homes and shoddy clothing, is a paradox harsh and unethical. The paper has brought the matter home in a direct and telling fashion.

In a conference like this, the worker is interested in certain families — perhaps a widow and her little children, the consumptive poor, the man who has done his last work and whose income is cut off — real people living up and down both sides of the street. We know the numbers of their dwellings. We should like to know our duty in the matter.

Last summer the Chicago Relief and Aid Society made a study of 500 families, for the purpose of ascertaining incomes, number of rooms, amount of rent paid, and the immediate causes which led to the application. Out of the 500, a hundred and twenty-one were widows. The average income of these 121, at time of application, was less than $3.00 a week, and indeed the average income for the whole 500 families at the time of the application was only about $3.00 a week. The average number of rooms occupied by these families was three; the average rent, a few cents less than $7.00 per month; the average number in the families was 4⅝.

What Dr. Forman said regarding the unsanitary condition of dwellings, the lack of modern comforts, was entirely true of the 500 families mentioned here. In our city we find a constantly increasing expense on account of rent without any corresponding increase in the comforts afforded.

In the main, the individual is responsible for his own safe conduct through the world. The man and the woman at the head of a family are responsible for their own standard of living and

for the ability to earn a livelihood for themselves and their children. However, we have ample illustration of the general acknowledgment that society is in part responsible for maintaining the standard. Almost before the earthquake had ceased rumbling in San Francisco money began to flow toward the stricken city. Little savings, big fortunes were wiped out in a single instant. The whole world came forward to help bear up the standard and to render assistance, when the ability of this community to care for itself was taken away.

Similarly, when she is rendered helpless, the widowed mother has a right to expect some one to help her carry her burden and to save her children from physical and moral deterioration. The industrious, hard-working citizen rearing a family — a good soldier in the industrial army — meets with an accident, contracts tuberculosis, or some other fatal disease — fatal unless some one extends a helping hand, — has he not the same right to human sympathy and support as the victim of an earthquake or a fire? His standard is stricken down, it is out of his grip, and unless some one or some organization helps to bear it, he and his family will lose the ability to maintain that standard.

In a recent noted address, President Roosevelt said, "We appreciate that the things of the body are important, but we appreciate also that the things of the soul are immeasurably more important." Those who have visited in the homes of the poor, have perhaps discovered that the greatest distress is distress of mind and heart.

A woman who was in my office yesterday, said that neither she nor her children minded much going hungry, they could get along on most anything, but the humiliation of being put out in the street was more than they could bear. Children suffer intensely, whose surroundings are such that they cannot invite their friends to their homes. There are children whose hearts sink within them if the teacher happens to come to their house. Fathers and mothers are often heavy hearted because of the environment in which their children must be reared.

A few evenings ago at an entertainment at a settlement, I sat beside a mother and her two children. Since the father's death this woman had been at work night and day, trying to keep up the plans they together had made for the children. The boy was slight and pale and was scantily clad. As the various gymnastic exercises were carried on, his desire to join the class seemed to increase. He and the mother carried on a whispered discussion as to how they could save the fifteen cents per month that was required as a membership fee. The mother was often ill and the boy was not strong enough to go regularly to his work. They often felt the pinch of hunger, but here was a desire on the part of both that was stronger than the desire for food. One is impressed with the fact that food and raiment are necessary, but

when one knows the desires of the human heart, one appreciates that it is not bread one day old instead of bread three or four days old, that it is not one cut of meat instead of another, that it is not these desires that lie at the heart of humanity. One knows that after all the real standards are ethical and spiritual.

The lamented Wm. E. Russell, late governor of Massachusetts, addressing a body of students once said, "Remember, young men, that there is a vast difference between making a life and making a living." It seems to me that in this thought lies the essence of the whole matter of the standard of living. Whether expressed or not, and no matter whether it is well defined in the consciousness of the individual, this higher aim is intrinsically the desire of every normal human being. We are all alike in this matter. We deceive ourselves if we reason that certain of our fellow beings ought to be satisfied if they have food and clothing sufficient to maintain the life of the body. There is much truth in the classic doctrines of Malthus and the iron law of wages, but after all the real motives of life are of the soul and not the body. The life of the body, first of all, must be preserved, and a given amount of food and raiment and shelter are necessary to this end, but given this necessary amount of food, the real purposes and struggles of life have just begun. It is the line of demarcation between existence and life, between the animal and the man. We all of us desire to make a living, but, forever, we desire to make that living in order that we may make a life.

William I. Nichols, Brooklyn: — The statement made is rather a discouraging and dark picture of the situation in reference to standards of living among the poor. My observation of the standard of living does not quite agree with that set forth in Mr. Forman's paper in reference to the habits of the very poor. In other words, I think, the situation is not quite so disheartening as it would be if they were as helpless as described. The poor often buy expensive things, and I think that is where they often make their mistake. When I go to shop on Saturday night and see the very poor people buy things, I see that they don't buy economically. I can buy a portion of beef for ten cents that will make a wholesome soup for my family, while many a poor person will pay fifty, forty or thirty cents for a piece of meat that will not be so nutritious. I have seen it a great many times, and the fault it seems to me is that the people have not been instructed. A good many of the workers among the poor are not practical housekeepers and are not accustomed to buy economically. Mr. Forman speaks of the price of butter being thirty cents. I don't think I have paid thirty cents for butter this whole year. And so in other ways excellent things can be got cheaper than people usually pay.

I believe that the standard of living in society at large is very

much at fault for the standard of living among the poor. Take the matter of dress. I don't believe there is a family among those spoken of as the very rich, who don't spend as much for things unnecessary as they do for things necessary. In my own family, with all my efforts, we throw away as much as we use. If we could set an example of plain living and let our poorer friends see that we do not depend on many of these things that are generally thought necessary, we could help lift up the standard of living among the poor. You may point me out a family such as has been described, where conditions are hard and where they seem to be overpressed because of the extravagant cost of their living, and I will show you another family with exactly as many people in it and with no more income, but where the standard of living is vastly better because of the person's knowing how. Therefore, friends, while I don't want to seem to underestimate or underrate the hardships of the poor, some of them are not economical and it is in our power to teach the people how to live better. Take for example the food spoken of. For ten cents, you can buy three and a half pounds of oatmeal, and I believe it will keep a family alive and comfortable for several days. It is not necessary we should keep changing our diet. A man is an animal. Human beings don't need to have their appetites pampered. All of our delicatessen stores are simply nuisances. I believe living in the cities has made it immensely more costly and less wholesome for the people generally, because of this custom of buying canned goods, buying "U-need-a-biscuit" and all those things which cost a great deal and do little to nourish. If you can only show the poor families the things that are nutritious and the things they need, and not only show them and tell them but set an example and do away with these unnecessary and costly things, I believe that would help very much in the way of establishing a proper standard of living among the poor.

MR. FORMAN: — Oatmeal is an expensive food I am told because it keeps the fire burning at breakfast time long past the time that the other foods are cooked. They tell me the reason they don't buy it is because they cannot afford to pay for the oil that it takes to cook it. It takes a long time to cook oatmeal, thirty to thirty-five minutes, where they can fry chops in five or six minutes, while the coffee boiled.

A MEMBER: — We used to have ladies go through the different cities and into the families and teach them. Have you not some one to do that?

THE CHAIRMAN: — I think that is the duty of the volunteer or the friendly visitor connected with the organization.

MR. PORTER R. LEE, Buffalo: — A discussion of the standard of living brings up a problem which must be faced by every district committee of the Associated Charities and Relief So-

ciety, and that is, the question of adequate relief. We hear a good deal of adequate relief. It is a principle which is easily grasped, but which is very hard to apply. When a family whose income has been either partially or completely cut off comes up for consideration, and it becomes a question of how much relief to give them, the matter of their standard of living is of vital importance, in determining what is adequate relief for that family. It varies, of course, with families of different types and nationalities. We never have had, in Buffalo, a definite standard of relief. As each case arose it became a question of how much they needed to live on, and we have never had a definite scale of living to which we could refer. About a year ago I wrote to charity organizations in the leading cities and asked if they had standards, and from Chicago I learned that the amount allowed to a family having no income was between one dollar and one dollar and a half a week. The next most definite statement I had was from New York, which said they allowed more for an American than they did for a Pole — one dollar a week per person. The next thing we tried was to ask our agents, of whom we had eight in Buffalo at that time, to make up estimates independently of each other, as to what in their estimation families of different sizes required to live on. We graded the families from a single woman with one child, a man and wife and two children, and so on up as far as a man and wife and six children. The result was rather amazing, because the largest estimate in some cases was lower than the smallest estimate in another. I have stated this fact because it shows a need for some standard. We come to the question whether a charity allowance ought to be as large as the normal income of the family. For, as Dr. Forman has pointed out, a family earning a dollar and a half a day, which in Buffalo is the normal wage of a laboring man, can provide for only the bare necessities of life. It is hard to say how a charity allowance can be any less than that. Yet, we have never felt in Buffalo that the allowance for a family of, say, a man and wife and six children, ought to be as high as nine dollars a week. And I cannot find that other relief societies or other charity organization societies take any different stand.

Furthermore we have met this difficulty. To force an allowance on a family which is greater than they think they need, to maintain physical comfort, is dangerous. We met last winter a family consisting of a widow and six children, who were living on two dollars a week and who stated that another dollar would be sufficient. If they had spent the entire three dollars for food, that would give them about two cents a meal per individual. I haven't been able to find how human beings can live on that amount of money, and yet to have raised the allowance would have been fraught with danger, exactly the danger which comes from indiscriminate alms if continued for any length of

time. Our idea in solving that problem is, the standard of living of that family must be raised through the work of the friendly visitor.

MR. EDWARD GRAUMAN, (Ky.) : — Housing the poor is quite a problem. We all agree that the poor are badly and insufficiently housed. There are, however, two sides to that story. We all agree that they ought to have more comfortable living, more light, air, water and other conveniences. I represent a city of two hundred and fifty thousand and the bulk of our poor people are living in cottages. The average cost of a cottage is two hundred and fifty dollars a room, making seven hundred and fifty dollars for a three-room cottage. Suitable ground would cost possibly twenty dollars a foot, making five hundred dollars for the ground, or a total of twelve hundred and fifty dollars. Six per cent. on twelve hundred and fifty dollars is seventy-five dollars a year. It is understood that no man is going to invest his money in a tenement house that is perishable and that requires repairs, for less than six per cent. Taxes would be two dollars and a half per hundred, and with the house assessed for about one thousand dollars, taxes would be twenty-five dollars, which, together with seventy-five for interest and six for water would make the house cost one hundred and six dollars to the owner or nine dollars a month. A member stated concerning five hundred families, that their average rent was seven dollars while the average earnings were three dollars a week. These people need better houses, but those with the paltry earnings of three dollars a week cannot pay even seven dollars.

There is only one way I can see out of this, to give the poor people better houses, give them water, give them plenty of light and air, give them a house to live in by themselves, and possibly a little ground besides for raising a little garden stuff. We ought to use our influence with every city and have them not to charge taxes on such property, so the poor people would get the benefit of it. There is no city but makes annual appropriations, more or less, for every manner of charity. This would be one of the greatest and most noble charities. It would prolong the lives of the poor, better their condition, and lessen the danger of disease. It has been said since the opening of this convention that most of the hardships borne by our poor come from bad housing.

MISS SUSAN P. WHARTON, (Phila.) :—In regard to Mr. Forman's paper, the interesting question confronts us all, how can we save that twenty-five per cent. to the people in whom we are interested. Some people are extravagant and some people are not. There is a large class in our community of persons who are anything but extravagant. They weigh every penny, and those of us who are more fortunate cannot realize the care that they take.

There is one small experiment which we have made and of

which I want to speak. The matter of coal and flour seem to us very important items in the lives of our poor. The first thing we tried was coal. We went around among our families and accepted as little as five cents a week to buy coal. We found that they were paying for their coal, at times, twenty-five per cent. more than I was paying in my house. The results were wonderful. We found by collecting this money every week that we had in the first place a fine opportunity to become acquainted with the families we visited, spring, summer, autumn and winter. There is no time of the year when that is not in order. Then, we found that the people who began by giving us five cents weekly, soon began to give us ten cents, twenty-five cents and even fifty cents, and sometimes more. Then, they began to give us money for other things. We found we could buy one thousand tons of coal and have it stored without any trouble, and save the people thousands of dollars a year — charging them the regular price for coal, and yet have some money left over to benefit them, to have meetings, etc. We have carried this on for twelve years with the most gratifying results. People come to us who haven't dreamed of such a thing as putting even a half ton of coal in their cellar at a time, and now they are very proud that they can put in a whole ton. This is among the colored people. The year of the strike we took in over nine thousand dollars. I met a colored woman in the street two days ago, who is paying nine cents a bucket for her coal. I said: "Do you realize that you are paying more than nine dollars a ton?" There are more than one hundred buckets to the ton. We have now made arrangements so that our people can buy one-eighth of a ton, and two women who live near together can get one-quarter of a ton, and every time they get that small quantity we are still saving them quite a good deal of money. We have tried the same thing with flour. It is a co-operative plan. We have had it now for twelve years and I believe we can speak with some decision as to the good results.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION.

Thursday Evening, May 10, 1906.

CHILD LABOR.

The session was called to order at 8:15 P. M., Mr. Robert W. deForest, President pro tem. in the chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: — This session is devoted to Child Labor. The Chairman of the Committee is Dr. McCune Lindsay, of the University of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee. I take pleasure in resigning to him the Chairmanship of this meeting.

Dr. Lindsay then presented the report of the Committee. (Page 150.)

THE CHAIRMAN (Dr. Lindsay): — I now have the pleasure of introducing to you Mr. Homer Folks of New York, a member of the National Child Labor Committee and General Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, who will open the general discussion on the report of the Committee.

MR. FOLKS: — My task this evening is a very simple one; to discuss very briefly one phase of this Child Labor report. As we meet from year to year in these conferences and in meetings of the National Child Labor Committee, we listen to reports from the forty-four different states in this Union in regard to legislation affecting Child Labor and we learn that here and there some improvement has been made in the statutes upon that subject, and we are able to classify the various states and to rank them as it were, in the order of their merit as to legislation upon this subject. But there is another aspect of this question which must never be forgotten in trying to really understand the protection of children in our various states, and their real order of merit, and that is the question as to the enforcement of those laws. That is a very different question from mere legislation. I wish we might have some sort of an X-ray which we could turn upon these various states and really inform ourselves as to the extent to which these various statutes are actually carried into effect. I fear that in many cases we might be considerably disappointed. I think that those of us who find it a part of our duty to inform ourselves about the administration of state and municipal affairs from time to time, discover that the law upon the statute books, the declared policy of the state as expressed in its statutes, is ofttimes widely at variance with the real policy of the state and with the policy of the state as expressed in its administrative machinery and in its support of that machinery. I fear that we have a rather marked tendency in matters of social legislation to get our statutes considerably ahead of our enforcement of them. It is easier and more interesting to undertake legislative work, whether we win or lose; we fight shoulder to shoulder and in a splendid cause and there is always something interesting about a legislative contest; but the manner of enforcement of these laws is something that occurs in the cold, gray dawn of the morning after and it is not so interesting, and it is not easy, but very hard to arouse the same keen interest in it. When a state legislature imposes upon some state department the duty of regulating some industry or some social subject, and then studiously refrains from creating any department or bureau, or studiously refrains from giving any appropriation for the salaries of agents or inspectors to enforce that law, we may be quite sure that the real policy of that state is not that which finds expression upon

the statute books. I wish, therefore, to say to all this splendid host of workers in charity who have taken up with so much zeal and interest the Child Labor question, we must see the matter through in our respective localities to its logical conclusion. The legislative contest is but the first preliminary skirmish and the real contest is likely to come one or two years later when a serious effort is made to enforce the law, already secured as a concession to agitation and public opinion.

The second phase of the matter upon which I wish to speak is that of the compliance with our Child Labor legislation, and other legislation affecting children, when we come in contact with it ourselves as we sometimes do, and the compliance with it in a cheerful and hearty spirit. It is perhaps rather curious and significant that in two instances which came to my personal knowledge societies or organizations which had taken an active part in promoting the passage of Child Labor legislation, found months later incidentally, that they themselves were violating the law in the employment of an office boy in the one case and a worker in a club in another, and it was very curious to see the resultant change of attitude toward the entire subject of that Child Labor legislation which was manifested by some of the trustees, officers and agents of these societies. It is very curious that in the concrete particular instance with which we happen to be concerned, the law seems too apt to be wrong and our own view of what is good for Johnnie Smith, who happens to be working for us or for some one of our friends, or one of the societies with which we are connected, seems so much clearer now. When we meet those situations, as we surely will in the case of families whose children are employed, I hope we shall always rise to the larger point of view. In the first place, because it is the law, and as it is the law, it is there to be obeyed. If we fail to set the example of obedience to the law, how can we expect the larger offenders to do better. In the second place because it is a beneficent law, it is a law born of a high purpose, a law to accomplish large results for good and even if it should be that in our particular cases, it may seem to be unnecessary; nevertheless ,the law in the main is a good law, necessary, and a beneficent law. Let us meet the exigencies in a spirit of respect and loyalty to the larger cause. Let us also not be too sure that we are right about Johnnie Smith. Perhaps we are not able to judge fairly all the facts of even that individual case. I frequently find myself doubting the sanity of my judgment in a matter in which my particular interest may happen somehow to be concerned. It may easily be that while at first thought we believe ourselves specially qualified to understand some individual coming within the range of our personal experience and interests, it may easily be that we are wrong not only in our view of the general law as applied to the particular case, but also in our view of the facts

of the case itself. Therefore, I wish to make an appeal for more activity on the part of us all in securing appropriations and inspectors and machinery for the enforcement of the Child Labor law, and for our strongest possible loyalty in its enforcement in each particular case coming to our knowledge.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The first paper on the program is that dealing with the subject of street trades and the messenger service, and I have the honor of presenting Dr. Charles P. Neill, United States Commissioner of Labor.

Mr. Neill read his paper on "The Evils of Street Trades for Children."*

THE CHAIRMAN: — On the first program of this meeting, sent out sometime ago, it was announced that Miss Jane Addams would speak on the dangers of premature employment. Unfortunately, a call for public service, which Miss Addams was not at liberty to ignore, came at the last moment and she was prevented from attending the Conference. I am sure, however much you may regret that announcement, you will be glad to learn that Mrs. Florence Kelley, who really belongs to Philadelphia and therefore needs no introduction in this city, has consented to take Miss Addams' place and will now address us on the same topic.

Mrs. Kelley then spoke on "The Moral Dangers of Premature Child Labor. (Page 157.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — The topic that has been presented here to-night is now open for discussion. Is there anyone present who would like to take the floor and speak briefly or ask any questions of the speakers who have addressed us. There is one point referred to by Mrs. Kelley that I think possibly ought to be brought out a little more fully. I fear that those of you who do not reside in the state of New York will not be entirely free from the obstructions that may be put in the way of getting at the proper solution of the Child Labor problem. But the N. Y. Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, I fear, will not confine its opposition to the things that make for the more progressive treatment of this question, to the State of New York. It has only recently sent out a letter over the signature of its President, asking all societies in all parts of the country to op-

* Dr. Neill, owing to the exigencies of public business, has been unable to revise his paper for publication. He discussed the evils of street trades for children in a forceful manner and a paper along similar lines which gives his views will be found in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, March, 1906, entitled "Child Labor at the National Capital," by Chas. P. Neill, Ph. D. — EDITOR.

pose the bill now pending in Congress for a Children's Bureau on the ground that it would interfere with the operations of the child helping and child protecting societies. Now, if any of you will take the trouble to send for a copy of the Children's Bureau Bill, you will find it provides for nothing else than for investigation and report on the subject. Any society whose operations will be interfered with by greater information than we now possess, may stand up at the bar of public judgment for such criticism as it deserves.

MR. FOX, (N. J.): — Of course, I heartily concur with everything that has been said here this evening and rejoice to have been present to get the inspiration which we have received from all of the speakers and especially from the stirring and splendid talk we have had from Mrs. Kelley. It is wise, if possible, that there should be state legislation to regulate this matter of the employment of the newsboys, but state legislation takes a long time. It requires the working out of a plan and working up a public sentiment throughout the state, and conditions in the various sections of a great state are so different that the work in most states is a matter of several years. It is in the meantime perfectly feasible, as we have found in one or two enlightened communities in the state of New Jersey, to provide by local municipal ordinances, for the regulation of this matter of the employment of newsboys. The other point I want to make is this: We have found in some parts, in fact pretty generally throughout our state of New Jersey, that the wholesale and retail liquor dealers and saloon men are themselves opposed to the admission of children and minors, under any pretext whatever, in their saloons, not perhaps entirely as a moral question, although I think that that does enter into it too, but they think it is bad business, and we have just passed a law in New Jersey which prohibits the admission of a minor to a saloon as messenger, as an agent for another, for any purpose whatever, under any circumstances. These are two practical points. That law was only signed by the Governor last week. We are very strongly in hope that it will be enforced, and I think in the parts of the state where public sentiment justifies it, it certainly will be enforced.

MR. THOMPSON, (N. Y.): — I should like to ask the chairman or Mrs. Kelley in reference to the children who are employed in the theatres.

MRS. KELLEY: — The question is raised as to the children who are employed in the theatres. The city of Chicago has made the discovery that the legitimate drama does not need children, and children under the age of sixteen years do not appear upon the stage in Chicago after the hour of seven o'clock at night. So far as the people of Chicago can discover, that law having now

been vigorously enforced for the space of three years, neither the children nor the grown people nor the drama have suffered.

MRS. BLANKENBURG: — I should like to ask Mrs. Kelley a question. Does Mrs. Kelley think if Judge Lindsey were in Philadelphia that he would be able to carry out the Juvenile Court ideas as well as he does in Colorado?

MRS. KELLEY: — No, I don't believe he could do that in any community where the mothers or teachers do not vote as they do for him.

MRS. AMIGH, (Geneva, (Ill.): — We have heard considerable this evening in regard to the newsboys and the children and their temptations and of legislation for prohibiting the newsboys or messengers from going into saloons and like places. How would it do if our Government would do away with saloons?

A DELEGATE: — I would like to know whether it would not be worse to send boys of eighteen to these houses than boys of ten and twelve and fourteen?

MR. NEILL: — I take issue with you on that point. As I said I didn't go into any question of the law. There is a law in the penal code of California, making it a penal offense to send anybody under twenty-one years of age, to any of the places I have mentioned and I go further than that, and say I don't think any boy of sixteen ought to be allowed on the streets selling papers after ten o'clock at night. I think that a boy of ten to fourteen at least has a right to be protected against information which is damaging to him. I think the average boy of eighteen has learned about all he is going to learn in his lifetime, and also that the moral stamina of a boy of eighteen is entirely different from the moral stamina of a little boy just out of childhood.

THIRD GENERAL SESSION.

Friday, May 11, 1906, 10:30 *A. M.*

Conference called to order by Mr. H. H. Hart, Ex-President, presiding.

The following Committee on Credentials was appointed: Freeman Gowen, Maine; J. A. Blaffer, Louisiana, and Alexander Johnson, Secretary.

MR. FOX: — The rules of this Conference provide that a rule shall remain in force year after year unless amended, all additions or amendments shall be submitted to the Executive Committee before being acted upon by the Conference. On behalf of the Executive Committee I offer the following amendments to the rules of procedure of this conference: The purpose of these amendments is two-fold; first, to provide that the Vice-Presidents of the Conference shall have certain duties in

case of emergency and that there shall be an order of service. At the present time there is no word in the rules of procedure to provide that the Vice-Presidents shall be called upon at any time to do anything. They simply say there shall be three Vice-Presidents, but do not say they shall be first, second or third, or that they shall be called upon to fulfill the duties of the President in his absence or inability to serve. The second amendment is to provide that in place of having seven members of the Executive Committee elected by the Conference at large, there shall be nine, and that the First Vice-President shall also be a member. That gives three extra members of the Executive Committee, to be elected by the Conference at large. The purpose is, first, that the number of members of the Executive Committee elected by the Conference, and the number of ex-officio members shall be more evenly balanced. Second, that the various interests and sections of the Conference may be more adequately represented on the Executive Committee.

With this explanation I will read the amendments as offered by the Executive Committee.

It is moved to amend rule 2, as to officers, so that it shall read: "The officers of the Conference shall be a President, First, Second and Third Vice-Presidents, a General Secretary, six Assistant Secretaries, a Treasurer, and a Corresponding Secretary from each state and territorry. These officers shall be elected annually by the conference."

Rule 3, second paragraph, shall be amended to read: "The Executive Committee shall consist of the President, First Vice-President, and all ex-Presidents ex-officio, and nine members to be elected annually by the conference."

Rule 4, the first paragraph, shall be amended by adding the following: "In case of the absence or inability of the President to serve he shall be succeeded by the First Vice-President, and he in like manner by the Second or Third Vice-President in the order named."

Rule 4, fifth clause, shall be amended to read: "The retiring President of the Conference and the General Secretary shall constitute a Publication Committee."

Rule 7 shall be amended by striking out the last sentence, which now reads: "No afternoon meeting shall be inserted in the official program."

On motion the amendments were adopted.

MR. KINGSLEY: — The Committee on Time and Place has performed its duties. There were invitations from Minneapolis, Cleveland and Richmond. There were good reasons why we should go to all three of these places, but inasmuch as the Conference can hold but one session in a given year, it was necessary

to accept one place, and that place is Minneapolis. We had the honor of having Governor Johnson with us in the meeting. We heard something of the Governor last fall. I think from the way the people up in Minnesota voted, that it is a pretty discriminating kind of a place. They assure us we will not only be able to get there, but we will be able to get away and that we will have a profitable time while we are there.

The time is left to the Committee on Organization.

On motion, the report was adopted.

MR. WINES: — During the last year we have lost by death three ex-Presidents of this Conference, A. O. Wright, Andrew E. Elmore and Philip C. Garrett. We have, also, lost one of the Vice-Presidents elected at Portland, Oregon, last year, who is on our present roll of officers, Judge Kinne, of Iowa. I move a committee of two be appointed to prepare and bring in at a subsequent meeting, resolutions in honor of their memory, to be spread upon our records and sent to their families. There are many others whom we should like to honor, but the Executive Committee feel that they should not go outside the list of officers, because it would make the list of persons to be honored too long and there might be discriminations made which would hurt somebody's feelings. Therefore, I confine the motion to deceased officers.

The motion, being duly seconded, was agreed to, and the Chair appointed Mr. Wines and Mr. Sanborn as said committee.

Mr. Butler (Indiana) presented a resolution relating to uniform statistics, which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions, under the rules.

THE CHAIRMAN: — Governor Johnson, of Minnesota, has just come into the room. In view of having just selected the city of Minneapolis, for the next Conference, I think it is the desire of those present to hear a few words from the Governor of the state to which we are going.

GOVERNOR JOHNSON, (Minnesota): — *Ladies and Gentlemen:* I want to congratulate you upon the wisdom of your committee. I know that the meeting next year will be an important one to all of you, and am glad you are to come out into the central basin of this great country, between the Alleghany and the Rocky Mountains. We want you to affiliate with the people of that region. To you people of the coast states, we promise you two or three hundred miles of the north shore of Lake Superior scenery, and we have the Mississippi, the Father of Waters, which is not inferior to the Potomac or the Hudson. And you

people of the West, we want you to come, and now we know that you are coming we want to make your stay so pleasant and delightful in that region that the majority of you will feel that that is where you really belong.

Minnesota is a great state, and for fear you may not find it out when you come there next year I want to call your attention to the importance, commercially, of the state I represent and which you have been accustomed to hear so much of as a great grain-growing state. That is only one of the small things which Minnesota has to do. While she furnishes all the rest of the world with Pillsbury and Washington-Crosby flour, it is only after all a very small thing with us. We have in our Lake Superior country, the iron ranges, operated and controlled by the people who are receiving attention at the hands of Congress at this time, and it will astonish you, I know, if I tell you that one small county of our state produces more mineral wealth every year than the entire state of Montana. We have eighty-four of them and I don't mean that all are as great in the matter of production as this one but Minnesota is the first producing mineral state in our country.

While we are proud of our mineral productions, we are prouder still of the fact that Minnesota leads all the other states in the union in her splendid educational system by which we have developed a citizenship of which we are very proud. We are glad to know that you are coming out into that country, for the added reason that we are somewhat interested in the work which brings us as delegates to this Conference. I think Minnesota is very fairly represented at this meeting. We have a system differing from that of many of the states, for the care and control of our public institutions. We have a board of control which has charge of all the penal, the charitable and those educational institutions which have to do with people who become in some sense the wards of the state, and we are very well satisfied with it. I was invited by one of the committees to make an address of a few minutes along the line of efficient administration. For fear I may not be here to-morrow evening when that time comes. I want to voice my opinion in the matter of efficient administration by saying that in my judgment the state of Minnesota has profited materially by the board of control system. I was very much opposed to it when it was first attempted, and fought it as hard and as strenuously as any member of our Legislature. I flattered myself at one time I had defeated it and was proud of my work. I am satisfied now there were others there with wisdom greater than mine, because in our state to-day we have a very efficient administration of the affairs of the institutions. Our state prison is a superior institution. We make binding twine, shoes and other products and last year we made, in round

numbers, a profit of one hundred thousand dollars at the prison in addition to the maintenance of the institution, so that the prisons are not only self-supporting but are affording a profit.

I am satisfied that the board of control system operates to the advantage of all of the institutions. Men are chosen because of their peculiar fitness for the positions on the board, who combine business with the charitable idea and the reform idea and, being able to give it their attention for a number of years, they acquire an ability which could not possibly be developed by professional men giving merely a portion of their time every week to the work. The first essential in the matter of efficient administration is to secure at all hazards men regardless of their political affiliations, who have scientific information as to the needs of their institutions.

Many people of our state, and I presume of other states, regard the insane man as a criminal, who is under restraint in order that the public might be safeguarded against him and his kind. We are trying to inculcate the idea that the insane man or woman is simply suffering from a disease, curable or incurable as the case may be. I imagine that this Conference could do no greater service for those unfortunate people whose reason has been dethroned, than to go out and teach the multitudes of our country that the insane man or insane woman is simply an invalid or sick person. I would like to talk to you about the poor prisoner who goes out with the mark of Cain upon him and stands branded throughout the rest of his life. There ought to be something done toward uplifting the moral sentiment of the people of this country so as to give a man a fair chance who has worked four or five years at hard labor, for doing some of the little things which men in high position can do with impunity.

I have trespassed upon your time. I am going to reserve myself for the time when you come to Minnesota, when I will feel that I have you where I want you and can talk to you as long as I please. I am very glad, indeed, to have met you.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The address of the Governor has been a pleasant interlude between the business meeting and the general session. I will now open the general session of the Conference and prayer will be offered by the Rev. Dr. Drury.

THE CHAIRMAN: — It was my privilege, as Secretary of the State Board of Charities of the State of Minnesota, to be associated for fifteen years with Dr. Arthur B. Ancker, who has been for twenty-three years at the head of the medical work of the city of St. Paul and Ramsey County. Dr. Ancker has been a member of this Conference for twenty years. He has built up in the city of St. Paul, one of the most noble hospitals that exists upon this continent and he stands to-day among the leaders in this line of philanthropic and public work. I have the pleasure of

introducing to you, Dr. Arthur B. Ancker, who will preside at this meeting.

CARE OF THE SICK.

Dr. Ancker then read the report of the Committee on Care of the Sick. (Page 165.)

THE CHAIRMAN. (Dr. Ancker). — The next paper is by Dr. Emerson, of Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore. Dr. Scherck, of St. Louis, who was to read a paper on "Instructing Children in Methods of Prevention of Disease," is unavoidably detained. I am told that the health officer, whose chief deputy he was, is dead, and the responsibilities of the office have fallen on him.

Dr. Emerson then read his paper on "Free Medical Help for the Poor." (Page 168.)

MISS SUSAN P. WHARTON, (Phila.): This last year we have tried an experiment in the Starr Garden Centre, which has interested us very much. Our people were not getting proper medical care, chiefly depending on patent medicines. We now have a physician to whom we pay forty dollars a month and we have a trained nurse from the Visiting Nurses' Society, who, as we are co-operating with the Society, is paid thirty-five dollars a month. We, also, have a Rainy-Day Society for saving for sickness, on a very small basis and persons belonging to it instead of paying fifty cents a visit to the doctor, which is the usual fee, pay half price. We have a standing arrangement with a drug store so that every prescription is charged twenty-five cents to the person getting it, if a member of the Rainy-Day Society, the Society paying the balance. The way this has worked has been perfectly marvelous. When we began, people said: "O they are too poor, they haven't the money to pay for a doctor, a nurse and medicines." Now, we have had visitors who have gone around among these people for the last twelve years and we knew perfectly well we could work it. There are exceptions, some of the poor people are unable to pay and we make provision for them, but usually there will be no trouble in collecting fees for the doctor and fees for the nurse. Only be positive and keep to your principles.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The next subject on the program is "The Sanitary Importance of Ordinary Housecleaning." A paper was to have been read by Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, of Boston. In her absence I will call on Miss Matilda L. Johnson, of Cleveland, to open the discussion on that subject.

MISS JOHNSON: — When it comes to a question of housecleaning in a general sense, there is no person who can do as

much toward building up a standard of cleanliness as the visiting nurse or other agent of Associated Charity who does a continuous work for the betterment of home conditions among the people.

I must necessarily speak of the problem of education from the standpoint of the trained nurse, since that is my profession.

The hospital isolates the patient from his surroundings and cares for his sickness. The trained nurse who does district nursing should do battle with the conditions which predispose the patient to illness. Here comes her large opportunity to help in the cleansing of the unclean spots of our cities. In fact this is her chief aim, for no district nurse, who is not thoroughly dull and stupid, can enter the homes of the overcrowded poor without trying to remedy the causes that make for their illness and for their degradation.

If she is earnest, sincere, and well trained she will accomplish results among the people that would astonish anyone not familiar with their desire to have better things. Her very habits of order, and cleanliness will do a great deal toward bringing about more general observance of sanitary laws. A really skilled nurse, one alive to her opportunities, will acquaint herself with all the municipal laws that have to do with the disposal of garbage, with the maintenance of sewers, with the building code, etc., she is then, in a position to instruct her patients as to what they have a right to claim from the city and from their landlords. Oftentimes the greatest imposition is practiced upon the helpless and forgotten poor by their landlords.

It becomes the duty of the district nurse to deal with conditions, as well as to deal with disease and to see that her patients have all the help that ought to come to them. In the meantime, she teaches *them* what are *their* duties toward the community in which they live. I cannot see that there is an agent who has greater power or greater opportunity, along the lines of municipal house-cleaning, than the visiting nurse. In the first place she has the diseased patient as partial proof of the fact that the family have been living in the wrong way; then she has the opportunity to instruct the patient, or the patient's family, not only concerning their rights, but also concerning their *obligations.* In times of illness the mind of the whole family is favorably disposed toward anyone who comes in and does actual work toward the alleviation of the suffering of the patient, and it is this very attitude that gives the district nurse her opportunity to instruct and advise the family which she visits.

Statute laws are slow in reaching the people, and the living laws of cleanliness, that make against disease, can best be emphasized when the lack of their observance has brought illness and misfortune into the midst of a family.

When we learn to understand that the people who need our

aid are not so much in want of money or temporary material relief as of readjustment along better lines of their own circumstances, we will have learned to see that we must prepare ourselves more carefully and more thoroughly, in order to be of real aid to them.

When one considers the overcrowded condition in which many of our families live, we can hardly wonder that they do not make application of hygienic laws. We, ourselves, would lose courage were we continuously exposed to similar conditions. How can the woman who does all her own work and cares for her children, change her street skirt and shoes for house clothing so as to avoid carrying the filth of the streets into her home? When water, space and light are all reduced to their minimum, a person loses courage.

The children must indeed be trained in the schools to be clean and to try and work for better standards in their own homes, but as long as there are dark, sunless, airless houses for rent, the people who inhabit them will not show any great courage toward striving for better things.

It is one thing to visit such homes and to see what ought to be done to make them cleaner and more wholesome; it is another thing to live under such conditions year in and year out, becoming dulled and sodden through their influence. The cupidity of landlords and the indifference of communities at large, are responsible for the greater part of the uncleanliness and misery of these homes.

One of the best forms of help that could be given people who are struggling with these adverse conditions would be to send a band of foster housewives among them, who could bake, scrub, and teach the mothers themselves. It is a bad thing, at least for this generation, when all the better ideals are confined to the children. Such teaching does not build up the home; it only tends to make the children ashamed and disheartened. Give the overburdened housewife a little chance to learn something — a little chance for rest, and see to it that her landlord cuts a window or two more, where the sun can look in and give her courage.

To teach the children in institutions, kept clean and beautiful at public expense, is by no means the best way to solve the home problem.

If the foster housewife can work at the cleansing of the home and the instruction of the mother, and the landlord be made to live up to honest standards, then the school-taught child will find something to co-operate with, and can make practical application of what he has learned.

Mrs. Mary A. Jacobson, Newark, N. J., was called on to continue the discussion. She said:

This is very unexpected and I am not very well prepared for a talk on what we have done in Newark regarding the visiting housekeeper. The idea came to us through Mrs. Newcomber, who told us about what they were doing in New York. We thought it such a good thing that we found a splendid woman whom we used in the capacity of visiting housekeeper. This woman enters the homes of the very poor. She is introduced by our friendly visitors; she goes into the homes of the poor people, sometimes because of sickness there and sometimes for other reasons, she has been very successful in getting entré into these homes. In the morning she will start about eight o'clock. If the children are to be prepared for school she washes them and shows the mother how they should be kept and she sends them off to school. Then she will clean up the house. If the mother is sick, of course, she must do it alone. If the mother is well, the mother helps her. If they haven't any boiler, and many times you know in these houses the dishpan is the bathtub, washboiler and everything else practically; the first thing she does is to see they have the necessary utensils for doing proper work in the house. She buys a boiler and buys a broom. She takes a duster with her. Then she will teach these women how to wash in the best practical way. She will show them how by using certain wash powders their labor can be made lighter and the clothes better, brighter and cleaner. She shows them how to hang them properly and in every way teaches these people how to work. She teaches them how to buy the kind of food that is most nutritious and the way to cook it. She will take a neck of beef and cook it five or six or seven hours possibly, slowly, and get splendid results. She buys pot roasts and things of that kind which it is more than possible the women never knew of. If there is a young girl in the house, when she comes home from school she is taught how to do the little things about the house, and is probably given her first insight into real housekeeping in its proper methods. She waits, many times, until the man comes home. It is not an unusual thing for them to come and tell us that they thank God that at last somebody has been sent to show the woman how to live and how to make the best of her opportunities. We have been so successful in the work of our visiting housekeeper that I want to tell you about her in the hope you may all in time get visiting housekeepers connected with your Bureau of Associated Charities, or with your friendly visitors. The friendly visitors can see whether the things she has taught these people are done. In a very short while instead of having young women in the house, who are brought up with no knowledge of housekeeping, simply their mill life, they are taught the fundamental principles of housekeeping, and they make better mothers and better women in the future. The families are uplifted and have a better standard of living. We have been very

successful and if you do try this work I hope you will be as successful as we have been.

Dr. Laban Dennis, (Newark, N. J.): — I want to call your attention to a possible danger to these visiting housekeepers. We found that the home of one widower had been made so attractive, the daughters having been instructed how to put the house in order through this visitor, that the widower proposed matrimony to the housekeeper. So you are in some danger of losing your housekeeper in this way. However, we feel the danger is very much overbalanced by the good the visiting housekeeper is doing. Our friendly visitors are an organized body of devoted women workers who are searching the whole field of philanthropy for knowledge of the conditions which they have to contend with and are conducting a study class which meets weekly under the guidance of Mrs. Jacobson. We have about one hundred and twenty families under the care of these visitors. They believe that cleanliness is not only next to godliness, but next to right living in all lines. We commend heartily to your consideration, and to the consideration of your boards of visitors or conferences, this matter of the housekeeper, for cleanliness and sanitation and for maintaining and uplifting the families.

Mrs. P. J. Toomey, (St. Louis, Mo.): — We have heard so many good things this morning about what should be done in the homes, which, of course, we all heartly approve, that I shall speak of a class of consecrated women who are doing active work in the homes of which I suppose we do not know and little dream, and that is the sisterhoods of the Catholic Church.

There is in St. Louis a band of exiled sisters, from France, called the Little Helpers. They go into the homes of the poor and nurse and do housework when the wife is sick. They do it gratuitously and in every way improve the conditions they find. A large auxiliary of ladies in St. Louis is supporting these sisters and helping them to furnish the needs of these people in the way of clothing, etc.

In New England there is now a band of sisters from France, called Sisters of the Holy Ghost. In Hartford, Bridgeport, New Haven, Waterbury, Fall River and other places are established these Sisters of the Holy Ghost, who visit in the homes and do this work in times of sickness and stress. They take to their home the daughters of the poor and teach them household employments as well as to sew. Now I have an idea many of you think the sisterhoods work entirely by themselves and rarely go directly to the poor in this way, but they do, and this society of which I speak and which is becoming general throughout the United States, established in St. Louis for fifteen years, will foster and help all such work. That is the fundamental principle upon which it was established.

We have another good thing in St. Louis and I think it would be a good thing in any city, and that is a free, obstetrical dispensary for the poor. Many a poor woman who might go to the city hospital does not care to leave her home at that time, and consequently she is attended by a midwife or some poor physician and it may be her life is lost. Her life, because of her poverty, is probably more valuable to her family than the life of another person in better circumstances. Then, again, the conditions of the homes are often unsanitary and it is necessary to have the most expert attention at that time to preserve the life of the mother and the well-being of her offspring, saving it from the consequences of neglect which so often results in blindness or deafness if not loss of life.

This dispensary is under the patronage of the St. Louis Medical School, conducted by the Jesuit Fathers. They have their office at 710 Carr street, day and night there is a doctor present and two medical students, of the senior department, to go to these cases. They watch them closely and the ladies of the auxiliary furnish proper maternity outfits when necessary.

Opening the discussion on Miss Aikens' paper on "The Opportunities of the Visiting Nurse in the Prevention of Disease (Page 185), Miss Annie Damer of Bellevue Hospital, New York, spoke as follows:

Women have generally been accredited with accountability for most of the ills to which flesh is heir. Women now are uniting in efforts to ameliorate and do away with the conditions brought on by our common ignorance, our neglect, our indifference, or our greed. Women are being equipped by study and by training, as well as by interest, to concern themselves in these matters. Women have been, through all the ages, by the most fundamental of all laws, the nurses of the world.

The health of the nation should be its first care, and the duty of the nation to prevent and cure sickness, preventable and remediable, is as imperative as the prevention and removal of ignorance. The district nurse recognizes that both the sick man and the ignorant man are taint spots, and that the safety of the community depends on the removal of these spots. How much more need when they are combined with the additional handicap of poverty often allied with superstitution.

In what lies the district nurse's opportunity for educational work in the prevention of disease? She enters the home to minister to needs most obvious. Her visits are neither unwished for nor unsolicited. The nurse is welcomed in a way no other stranger is made welcome, when the heart is longing for sympathy and the body cries out in pain. She practices first before she preaches, and she practices that which she preaches, the see-

ing and the doing go together, the mother or sister or neighbor unconsciously profiting by her instruction, through her example, and many object lessons are given, taught in a "language understanded of the people." The nurse, in her district and among her people, is often looked upon as almost infallible. When she has won their confidence, her work of direct teaching may begin. Here a little and there a little, to the weary mother at her washtub earning the daily subsistence of her little family, snatching a moment to bathe or feed her sick little one; to the father after a hard day's toil, perhaps sitting up all night with a wife or child, anxious but so ignorant of the simplest requirements. Each day, each hour is our opportunity. In caring for the needs of the present, with eyes open as those who behold the vision, and minds alert and hearts courageous, we are preparing for the future, if only a simple lesson of order or cleanliness is taught to a receptive learner. It takes time and patience and tact, and a great big share of common sense. The lack of proper food, and the long hard struggle for a livelihood, induce a condition of moral and mental apathy, that desire for any thing beyond immediate needs is lost. That disease can be avoided by any effort or precautions, is considered impossible. But often, in some manner, a change is effected.

Diet plays such an important part in the prevention of disease, that the nurse must be able to instruct in the preparation of food, to convince her patients that improper food, poorly cooked, is at the bottom of much of their trouble, and that as long as that continues they may go on taking medicine until doomsday, without deriving much benefit. Boiled tea and bread, with an occasional raw cucumber or tasty pickle, constitutes the child's breakfast. The baby of a few months shares in the sausage and the beer, or the richly daubed cake; for nothing is too good for the baby; and it is difficult to impress the lesson that what may not hurt the adult, is highly injurious to the young child. She can show what can be done with primitive appliances, that the stew pan is superior to the frying pan, although it does take a longer fire.

To teach simple hygienic rules, how to carry out simple directions in a sensible manner; to reach the friends as well as the patients, who often feel that the advice of a "mother of eleven who has buried seven," given freely and often is more to be regarded than that of the nurse; this is the nurse's opportunity.

She can teach, above all, the lesson of self-reliance and responsibility, which our numerous avenues to charitable aid do so much to destroy. Better be taught that keeping a child regularly bathed, properly fed and properly clothed, is more likely to prevent disease and will take less time, than to wearily drag it to the convenient free dispensary, for medicine for an ailment which might have been prevented.

Two classes of district nurses have special opportunities for educational work, the public school nurses and the tuberculosis nurses; the former because she is treating ailments due in a great measure to conditions which the family itself may be the greatest factor in preventing, and the latter because of the lack of knowledge of preventive measures, the insidious progress of tuberculosis and its long continuance. This is the work in which I am at present engaged, and I feel that nothing being done to prevent the spread of tuberculosis is more important than the personal instruction of the patient in prophylactic measures and teaching him not only to realize and fulfill his obligations to himself and his family, but to awaken and develop his social conscience, in the face of the fact that the neglect of this obligation, on the part of others, is the cause of his present condition.

The nurse has her opportunities, she also has her limitations, her lack of special training for all these numerous lines of teaching and work, but of which she must have knowledge if she is to be a factor in the improvement of the community. She is handicapped, too, not only by her own personal lack or that of the patient, but by the difficulty of obtaining proper accommodation, the want of good air and playgrounds, overcrowding, unsanitary workshops, low, irregular earnings, child labor. All these are arrayed against her, but she stands ready to co-operate in preventive work, not only with those who sit and think, but with those who act and make laws. A well man is worth much more, as a citizen, than a sick man and physical fitness is obtained by right living, with the background of a sound constitution. With our efforts concentrated on the prevention of disease more than on its cure, the stunted degenerate man and the sickly child may become rarities indeed, and many of the topics for discussion in our charitable conferences be equally rare.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION.

Friday, May 11, 1906.

CHILDREN.

The meeting was called to order at 8 P. M., Mr. H. H. Hart presiding.

Prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr Stephen W. Dana, Philadelphia.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The meeting of to-night is favored with the presence of three of the leaders of three of the great states of our country, men who are in the forefront of the different lines of child helping work. We are to listen first to Grafton D. Cushing, President of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in the city of Boston.

Mr. Cushing: — I wish that I could think that the words of the presiding officer were true; I wish that I could believe that the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children were in the lead. It is because I believe that we have a great deal to learn from the experience of those engaged in that sort of work that we have come here, to exchange some ideas with you. Far be it from me to believe that I can offer any suggestions from my own experience which will prove of great value. I hope from this Conference to take back something which will be of value to Massachusetts.

Mr. Cushing then read his paper on the topic of "Work of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, Essential in the Prevention of Crime." (Page 106.)

The Chairman: — The chairman of this section has been a probation officer of the Cook County Juvenile Court, in the city of Chicago, almost since that Court has been created. It is our opinion in Chicago that there is no jurist on the bench in Cook County who is too good, or too big, or too wise a man to sit in the Juvenile Court. We have a judge on the bench who comes in the court room every day apparently with mind as fresh, a heart as sympathetic, and patience as indefatigable as when he first began, and when the close of the day comes, after a long and weary routine of hearing cases, the case of the last child that comes up is heard with just as much patience and just as much detail as that of the first. We cannot do work in Chicago as it is done in Denver, because we have different conditions and a different population, but we believe that our judge is administering this law in the true spirit of regard for the highest welfare of the child, and at the same time the preservation, if possible, of a family home and the bringing of the parents, as far as practicable, to a fulfillment of their parental obligation. I now have the pleasure of introducing the Honorable Julian W. Mack, who will speak on the Juvenile Court.

Judge Mack: — I don't know what to say, in view of those words that come from home. I will ask you only to look upon them as a statement of our aims and not our results. We are very far behind what we aim at in Chicago. (Judge Mack's address will be found on page 123.)

The Chairman: — One of the great institutions of the city of New York is the New York Juvenile Asylum, which has recently been rechristened the Children's Village, having removed from the city of New York to the suburb of Dobb's Ferry. I can speak from personal knowledge in regard to the work of that institution because, for two years and a half, the Society which I represent has acted as the western agent of the New York Juvenile Asylum and we have under our charge in the west four

hundred of the wards of that Society. During the past two years and a half we have had five hundred and fifty different children from thence under our charge. The care with which these children are selected and the care with which their homes are selected in the west, may be indicated by the fact that, with careful visitation and supervision, we have found it necessary to send back to New York, as incorrigible, out of these five hundred and fifty boys and girls, during the two years and a half, only six children. These children come to the west as a valuable addition to our population. They become incorporated with the body politic, grow up in the communities in which they live and become good citizens, and add to the wealth of the great interior. The president of that organization is present with us this evening. Some time ago in visiting that institution, I had the curiosity to read the register of visitors and I found that the name of the president of that organization, a busy lawyer in Wall street, New York, occurred on that register as visitor as often as twice a week running right through. I have never known in this country, closer board work than that done by the business men of the city of New York, who compose that board of directors.

I have the privilege of introducing to you Mr. Mornay Williams of New York.

Mr. Mornay Williams (N. Y.) spoke on "The Co-ordination of Child-Helping Agencies." (Page 111.)

Mr. J. J. Kelso, (Toronto): — I want to move a rising vote of thanks to the last two speakers.

(Seconded, put to vote and carried.)

A meeting was announced for the purpose of considering the advisability of the formation of a National Juvenile Improvement Association.

FIFTH GENERAL SESSION.

Saturday Evening, May 11, 1906, 8 *P. M.*

Ernest P. Bicknell, Chairman: — In the absence of the regular presiding officer I have been asked to call the meeting to order. We will first have prayer by the Reverend Dr. Delk.

AFTER PRAYER.

Mr. Timothy Nicholson: —Mr. Chairman, I would ask, at this time, to offer a resolution of a personal character to a very faithful member of this Conference.

The Chairman: — If there be no objection Mr. Nicholson's resolution will be received and I will ask the General Secretary to read it.

The Secretary read as follows:

WHEREAS, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, who was for twenty-five years the very efficient editor and reporter of the Conference, resigned that position shortly before the meeting at Portland, Oregon;

Be it Resolved, That the Conference in accepting Mrs. Barrows' resignation, does so with regret at the severance of a tie of twenty-five years' duration.

Few, if any, great Conferences can show such a splendid series of volumes of proceedings and to Mrs. Barrows most, if not all, of the credit for this excellence is due. Her perfection in reporting and her skill and taste in editing, have always been a matter of admiration to the Conference.

While, nominally, reporter and editor, Mrs. Barrows for many years was practically custodian of the proceedings and conducted the sales. To her unwearying patience and faithfulness, under circumstances which were not always the most encouraging, much of the continuity of the Conference has been due.

The Conference desires to place on lasting record its great appreciation of her faithful services.

MR. HART: — I move that the rules be suspended and the motion be adopted at this time.

Motion seconded, and unanimously carried.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The topic for this evening is the State Supervision and Administration of Charities and Corrections. It is one of the oldest topics that the Conference has been accustomed to discuss and one of the most important. There have been many different phases of it threshed out in the meetings of this Conference, yet it is thought that perhaps all has not been said which ought to be said on the subject.

We have discussed at various times the comparative advantages of State Boards of Supervision and State Boards of Control, and we have all of us succeeded in convincing ourselves that we were right in our original idea.

Tonight the subject will not be primarily the discussion of State Boards of Control or State Supervisory Boards, but will be in a general way the whole subject of Efficiency in the Conduct of State Charitable and Correctional Institutions.

Before we begin on the regular program which had been prepared for this evening, it has seemed to be timely and proper to have something said about great enterprises in the nature of emergency relief.

Mr. Robert C. Ogden, who was active in the organizing of

relief measures, and in the restoration of sufferers to normal conditions, after the great flood at Johnstown, will speak first upon the subject of the San Francisco disaster in the light of the experience at Johnstown:

MR. ROBERT C. OGDEN: — As I understand it, I am not to speak concerning San Francisco. It is my business only to give a very simple story of the Johnstown experience, and then the audience can make what application it sees fit of the Johnstown case to the San Francisco disaster.

When the news of the terrible calamity came to us and its vast proportions were realized, and the enormous extent of the relief needed began to appear, my heart went out with brotherly sympathy to the men who would have to do with the administration of that relief. I could say that they are precisely in the condition of the people of this city and state at the time of the Johnstown disaster. There were dozens of miles of country in the Conemaugh Valley, that had been visited by disaster to property and tremendous loss of life, and there were thirty thousand or forty thousand people to be cared for.

A great sum of money came rolling in from all parts of this country and from some foreign countries upon our Governor, and we were suddenly and quickly charged with the administration of the relief. My home was kept open day and night for three or four days, that the telegrams might come from the men on the ground, particularly from Mr. James P. Scott of Pittsburg, who was then, for a little while, known as the Emperor of Johnstown, because with his masterful, executive ability and his natural command, he absolutely took control of things.

The telegrams poured in, not by the dozens, but by the hundreds, making all sorts of demands. I remember in obedience to one of these demands sending out all of a sudden, a whole train load of cooking stoves. Another epistle was for coffins, and I managed to buy every coffin that every undertaker in Philadelphia had in stock.

Then the money began to come in, and we were then vexed with a large problem. The difficulty about all this sort of thing is, or was then, and I suppose it is now, that there is nothing on record to which people charged with these responsibilities can refer, so as to get the benefit of the experience of others. There are no methods or principles that have been found and applied. So here we found ourselves with a great mass of trouble upon one side, and an accumulation of money upon the other, and whole train loads of supplies of every sort pouring into Johnstown, accumulating on the railroads and the transportation not equal to the generosity of the public.

The first thing that we undertook to do was to find shelter and food and clothing. There are sometimes some very amusing sides to some of these matters of relief. The number of bon-

nets that had been fashionable in their day, extending back perhaps for a generation, that would have been interesting in a museum of dress, but absolutely useless to the poor suffering women at Johnstown. The great mass of absolutely useless clothing. The quantities of denim overalls from iron works and from railroad people, having served their term of usefulness to their owners, they were thought fit to send to Johnstown. But the danger of spontaneous combustion from these cotton goods, saturated by oil and other combustible material, was such — I would not have dared to mention it then, but now that seventeen years have elapsed I do not hesitate to refer to it, — I had them destroyed by fire, some of them in the suburbs of Philadelphia, and some of them in the suburbs of Johnstown.

It was impossible for business to be resumed in any of its regular channels in Johnstown until more than thirty days after the flood had passed, so we organized a commissary. We began by having thirty odd thousand people on our commissary roll, and that roll was maintained for six months until it had dwindled down to a very few hundred people. I think, when the relief was terminated, there were only about four hundred people left to receive assistance with food.

We then turned our attention to the rehabilitating of the town. We took one of the Public Squares, got a quantity of rough lumber and a lot of mechanics and quickly ran up rough buildings, the first floors of which could be used for shops and small stores, with two or three rooms in the upper part that could be occupied by the families of the proprietors of the stores. These were distributed to the merchants of the town, who were willing and glad to take them for the sake of resuming their trade.

We then contracted for six hundred rough, board houses; some of them, having been ceiled and finished, are still the humble homes of people of Johnstown. They were four-room, two-story houses, they cost $225 apiece and were quickly put into place. So with shelter, clothing and food, and with a little attempt towards the rehabilitating of the business of the town, the relief began.

We found ourselves face to face with a knotty problem and we struggled in an uncertain kind of way, not quite knowing what we were doing, until we reached a truth, which I believe is apparent to a large number of this audience, but which took us some little time to discover. Whom did we represent? When we reached the conclusion that we represented the donors of the money, we caught a great light and took the first step in discovering our relations to the suffering community and to our duty.

When we got hold of the next idea, that the money that was

given was given simply for the relieving of distress, we made another step forward.

The third question. The position was this. The idea in the community at large was that here was a great insurance fund, and that it was simply to be prorated upon the losses suffered by the different persons, and so the thing would be wound up very quickly.

Now, as a matter of fact, the people who had the least property suffered the most. And the people who were the largest sufferers — one gentleman who has gone to his rest, with whom I became quite well acquainted in the proceedings there, had a claim on the Flood Commission for $135,000; but owing to the fact that he was a millionaire we did not consider that he was in distress and so he never received any financial consideration from our commission.

But the precise point at which property loss could be considered an element of distress was a very nice point to determine and a difficult point to demonstrate.

So there were these three points: whom we represented, what the money was given for, and the termination of the point at which property loss was an element of distress. These were the three points of largest interest in the formulation of the principles that guided us.

In working out the details there were many instances of flood widows, and sometimes and in one or two cases I think we considered also flood widowers. These people were poor mechanics and laborers; their material property amounted to very little, but to the widow with a family we gave one of the little hastily built houses, we gave commissary supplies for a certain period and we gave $600 in cash. We made an annuity fund for all of the children, beginning with the youngest infants of the flood period and extending up to sixteen years of age, making an allowance of $75 per annum for each up to the time the child reached sixteen years. It was only a very few months ago that I signed the last document that finally liquidated and settled with the Girard Trust Company, the annuity fund for the flood sufferers. We had also a little residuary money with which we built the Conemaugh Valley Hospital, which now stands there and has been enlarged somewhat since. This hospital was made the residuary legatee for all of the annuities that accrued from deceased children. The last transaction was to pay over to that Hospital the balance that had accumulated in the hands of the Girard Trust Company because of children's deaths.

There are humorous sides to all of these matters. We were at one time in a crisis. Our Commission was utterly unpopular. Everybody was dissatisfied; the people that expected to receive the benefits of the fund were the most dissatisfied, and we were

the subject of criticism and complaint to a very extraordinary and drastic degree.

Of course, under the circumstances every man or woman will feel that his or her own troubles are the greatest troubles, and we were inundated by a mass of correspondence. A would write, "Now there is my neighbor B, my losses were as great as B's, but B has got a great deal more money than I did." Frequently B would write about A, with the same sort of statements, and the cases of these fellow citizens writing about each other were so numerous that we adjusted a great many of them by simply exchanging letters.

The administration of the Johnstown Relief was carried on, so far as the details were concerned, by a salaried secretary, Mr. J. D. Cramer. His salary was very moderate; extremely moderate for a man of his ability, and his administration was wise. He was a thoroughly experienced insurance man, with consummate ability at the adjustment of insurance claims, and I doubt if we had searched for months we could have found another man in the whole State of Pennsylvania, so prepared by temperament and experience to do this piece of work.

Now one thing more, what did it cost the State. What did it cost the fund? Outside of Mr. Cramer's salary, the fund never paid for a single postage stamp or a railway fare. Our account was nearly $3,000,000 cash and I do not know how much material. I have sometimes guessed that it would be considerable over $1,000,000 — well towards $2,000,000 in kind. A perfect audit was made, the most drastic accounting followed the whole administration, and that was filed at Harrisburg. The detail of it, before the fire at Harrisburg that destroyed the Capitol building, could be referred to at any time, and any question that could have been asked concerning the administration of the Johnstown Fund, would have been answered by the papers on file, and they were filed in such a way that they could very readily be referred to.

THE CHAIRMAN: — We will now pass to the subject of the evening; Efficiency in State Charitable and Correctional Institutions, and an address will be delivered by Governor J. Frank Hanly of Indiana.

Governor Hanly spoke on "Efficiency in Public Institutions." (Page 401.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — Governor Johnson of Minnesota had expected to be here tonight to open the discussion upon this address of Governor Hanly, but he found it necessary to leave the city before the meeting. He spoke at one of the meetings yesterday, I believe, and felt that that would have to be all he could do on this occasion.

Dr. Frederick H. Wines will open the discussion by a brief consideration of this subject which Governor Hanly has discussed.

MR. WINES: — The distinguished Governor of the State of Indiana had already won our confidence, but by what he has said tonight I think he has endeared himself to our hearts.

In the English Parliament in the days of the immortal Burke, there was a country squire who could not himself make a speech; he was in the habit of always rising when Mr. Burke sat down and saying: "I say ditto to Mr. Burke;" so I say ditto to the Governor of Indiana. There was not in his entire speech from beginning to end, a single sentiment which would not meet with the approval and endorsement of every veteran in the service of public charity in this country, and that in proportion to the length and the breadth and the heighth and the depth of his experience.

Now in what I have to say tonight, I propose to address myself only to the question of supervision, a subject which has been very thoroughly threshed out in our meetings until the straw has been reduced almost to fine chaff, but I shall try not to say anything that has been said before, either by myself or anybody else, on this subject.

As the Governor has said there is no question as to the necessity of supervision, of thorough inspection of the work of public officials. We have it in every branch of business. We have it in the railroads; every corporation inspects the work done by its agents scattered all over the country and the government does the same thing in all the departments — the navy department, the war department, the postoffice department, the treasury department. These departments could not be successfully run and administered without inspection.

I take it for granted that we are all agreed as to that. Now with regard to the question which Mr. Bicknell said we must not discuss; whether the inspection is done by the State Board of Control or by a State Board of Public Charities, I have only this to say; that this is a mere question of detail. If you have a thorough inspection, what difference does it make whether it is done by an agency constituted in one form or another provided you get the result that you are after?

But what is the result that we are after? Why do we require and insist upon inspection? What is the duty of the official charged with the responsibility of inspection? I think it is three-fold. In everything in this life which is done either by an individual or by the community we have three elements: First, the man; second, the tool; third, the result.

Now if we are going to have inspection of the work of institutions either public or private the first thing to be inspected is the men who are at the head of these institutions. It is the

man who is the institution, just as it is the artist in whose brain and out of whose brain comes the picture. If you have not the right man at the head of the institution, and if you have not the right kind of subordinates under that man, it does not make any difference how perfect the equipment of the institution may be, how excellent the business administration; you will not have the result which you seek.

Then he must have the equipment.

It has been my pleasure recently to spend three months in the State of Louisiana, examining the public institutions of that State, and I said to the Governor of Louisiana that the only substantial criticism to be made upon the state institutions, so far as I had the privilege and the pleasure of examining them, was that the appropriations for their support were not large enough to enable them to do the work which with larger appropriations they might be expected to do. You can't have the best unless you pay for it. If you are not willing to pay for it you must not expect it.

And in the third place inspection is concerned with the results: if it is an educational institution what are the educational results? If it is a hospital, what are the results in the way of cures and recoveries? If it is a prison, what are the results in the way of reformation of criminals and the prevention of crime, and so on?

Now then, with these principles in view it is perfectly evident that the qualifications of the man or the set of men who are to do this work of inspection are also three-fold:

In the first place he must be a judge of men — know men when he sees them, — what they are and whether they are of the character and capacity necessary to accomplish the work entrusted to their hands.

In the second place he must have a thorough knowledge in proportion to his ability, of the methods which are employed in the various classes of institutions.

Of what use is it to inspect an institution for the education of the deaf if you don't know what the deaf are and what the deaf need, and whether the instruction that is given to them is the best form of instruction to be used or not. The same way with the insane. What is the use of inspecting an insane asylum, if the man who inspects does not know what insanity is and what the methods are which are in use all over the world for the cure of insanity and for the prevention of its recurrence, and cannot judge of the character of the work done? You must know with regard to the men, the equipment and the results. These three things the inspector must be able to judge. We expect by this inspection to improve the quality of the service and to make particular institutions more economical on the one hand and more efficient on the other.

Now what are the obstacles to the realization of that idea? The first of them the Governor has very clearly pointed out tonight, and that is political interference with the administration of the institution. What he said is absolutely true, that you cannot subject the management of your state institutions to political interference and control without ruining them. But why is this so? Is it because the politician is worse than other men? No, not at all. More selfish than other men? No, not at all. More dishonest than other men? On the contrary the men who fill the public offices of this country, and who represent the people in the Legislature, are as a rule men of higher type morally and intellectually, than the people who elect them.

What is the reason? It is because it takes away from the superintendent the freedom which he ought to have in exercising his best judgment, with no object in view except the welfare and the benefit of his inmates and the advantage of the State.

But now let me say what will not be so acceptable to this audience. The freedom of the superintendent, and his ability to accomplish these results, is just as much interfered with by Civil Service rules as it is by political interference. You may not see that perhaps, but I remember very well that when I took charge of the United States Census, as its Assistant Director, I had a very interesting conversation with the head of a large railway system in the United States and I asked him what about employing subordinates, and what about the tenure of office of subordinates, in the actual administration of the affairs of a great corporation, and his answer I never shall forget. He said to me: "I don't care how my subordinates or employes come." He said, "I am just as willing that the names of the persons suggested for appointment to different positions should be put into a hat and scrambled and drawn out by a blind girl, and I will try them in the order in which she draws them out, as any other way, and I don't care where they come from. I don't care whether they come from the president, directors, politicians or business men or anything else, provided I have absolute freedom to discharge a man the very moment that I know that he is not satisfactory in the position for which he is appointed."

Now if civil service were a means of preventing the appointment of disqualified and incompetent men, and if the methods of the civil service commissioners were such that you could judge of the qualifications of the men who are supposed to be qualified and recommended by them for positions, if that were true, if that were all that there were to civil service, there would be no objection to it. But the objection to the civil service rules lies here. It operates to keep men in office whether or no. It interferes with the freedom of discharge of employes by the superintendent, and in interfering with the freedom of discharge of employes it weakens the efficiency of the disci-

pline and of the administration of the institution. You have got only one thing to do in this world if you have a good institution and that is to put the right man in charge of it and give him an absolutely free hand and then watch him to see that he does not go wrong.

And as to the question of the Board of Control or the Board of State Charities? You may have political interference if you have a Board of Control, and you may have political interference if you have a Board of State Charities, or you may have no interference in either case. You may have an honest or you may have a dishonest administration under either system. The only question that I ask with regard to the Board of Control is whether, under the Board of Control, you have supervision. If you have supervision and the kind of supervision I have explained, there is no objection whatever to the Board of Control. But if under the Board of Control you have no supervision, then that is a very serious objection to that system of organization of institutions.

After all, the best supervision is not the official supervision, but it is the supervision that comes from the visits of the friends and the relatives of the inmates of the institution in which the inmate is. That is especially true of the insane asylum. Here is a patient in a ward. He may be properly treated and he may not. It may be intentional unkindness or it may be absolutely unintentional through ignorance, but the friend of the patient comes there and sees him, and he or she, especially if it is a woman, is very likely to put his or her finger on the weak point of the administration. He knows whether the results are reached or not, and he forms a judgment and speaks of it in case they are not pointed out to the superintendent, and he says to him, Doctor, I think perhaps you don't know what is going on in Ward A or B. I saw so and so there, and I thought I would tell you, and the Doctor says, I am obliged to you, I will look into that matter and he looks into it and corrects it. And more of that minute inspection by the friends of the patients would be a good thing for the institutions and benefit the state, and therefore I think that the visits of friends to patients and pupils and other inmates of other institutions should be encouraged and the utmost possible freedom and latitude allowed in the matter. And on the other hand the prurient visits of curiosity mongers, who are seeking for a thrilling sensation and who look upon an institution as a show place, ought to be discouraged and disallowed to the utmost extent possible.

MR. HART:—Mr. President, I wish to say a word on behalf of those who are here, the remnant of this audience. As we know, the Chairman of this evening has just returned from San Francisco where he has been actively engaged in the work of relief of the sufferers there. Most of us desire to go imme-

diately home, but in behalf of a small number here I wish to request the Chairman to remain with the few people who are sitting in the front seats and give us some of his experiences in San Francisco.

THE CHAIRMAN: — That puts the Chairman in an embarrassing position. If there was another Chairman up here who could ask this Chairman to do it perhaps it might be allowed.

MR. HART: — Mr. President, I will take the Chair if you please. There is now an opportunity for those who find it necessary to retire to do so as rapidly as possible and the rest of us will remain here until midnight.

MR. E. P. BICKNELL: — Immediately after the disaster had occurred in San Francisco, Dr. Devine, the President of this Conference, was sent out there, representing, at the time he started, the New York State Red Cross, and soon after he started he was commissioned by Secretary Taft, the President of the National Red Cross Society, to represent him. At Chicago a large relief movement had been started and the agent in charge of that had asked me to go to San Francisco as their representative in the distribution of the money they had raised. It was the purpose for me to go there and stay a few days, perhaps a week, to look the ground over carefully and help decide how the money should be disbursed. At that time there was very great uncertainty all over the country as to who were the right people to handle the funds in San Francisco. Telegraphic messages were meagre and few, the mails were entirely cut off and people did not know whether to send money to the Governor, or to the Mayor of San Francisco, or the Finance Committee that they heard had been created, or to whom it should be sent.

I was fortunate in joining Dr. Devine in Chicago as he passed through, and we went to San Francisco together. The earthquake was on the morning of the 18th, and on the 23rd Dr. Devine and I reached San Francisco. Very soon after getting there we were pushed into the work pell mell, without any question whether we had come there to work or not, and I found that while I had gone there to stand around and look wise and represent the Committee of Chicago to decide what it ought to do, I did not have time to do anything except take off my coat and go to work.

I had perhaps better run over a little history of what had been done in the way of relief immediately after the fire. Before the fire was extinguished in fact, but after it was seen that a great number of people were to be burned out of house and home the business men, the authorities of the city, and the officers of the regular army stationed there at the army post, awoke to the fact that something must be done to prevent distress at once, and the grocery stores, the meat shops and the clothing

stores and any store that had supplies which might be necessary, were taken possession of by the police and by the soldiers.

Because of this remarkable and very admirable method of the authorities, to so quickly grasp the situation and take possession of all these stores of supplies, there was no opportunity for mobs to form and loot the places of business. They began distributing them by means of wagons to the camps and the vacant lots, or any spaces to which the people had fled for safety.

The earthquake occurred at about five o'clock in the morning and of course found the majority of the people of the city in bed. They were driven from their homes in alarm and then the fire came following the earthquake. Most of the people had no opportunity to get back to get any clothing or any of the things that they might have left. The result of it was that scores of thousands of people were in the parks and the open spaces without any clothing except night gowns, or a calico slip, or one or two thin garments of some sort, which were a very poor protection from the cold nights and chilly evenings and mornings, which they have in San Francisco at this season.

People began getting blankets and scattering them about. People that were not burnt out and had extra garments and bed clothing, just poured them from their houses and scattered them over the open places, and everything was done that could be.

General Funston, who was in command of the army there, sent his men out and they began carrying out supplies from the army warehouses, blankets and tents; tents went up in all directions very rapidly.

Any man who could get hold of a wagon or vehicle of any sort to haul supplies in and who wanted to do it, took possession of that wagon and he went down to some store that was under the care of the police, got a load of stuff, hauled it back and distributed it among his neighbors, and started a little relief station of his own. No questions were asked in those first two or three days as to whether he was a responsible man, as to whether he knew properly and scientifically about distributing the stuff. The main thing was to get something to eat, something to wear and some kind of shelter for these people. About one hundred and fifty relief stations sprang up, in this irresponsible way, throughout the city. Individual citizens had charge of them. Many of these men were very capable. The brightest of the leading men of the city of San Francisco started relief stations and they did the work with skill and care. Others were irresponsible, moved simply by the impulse of the moment and did very poor work. A great deal of waste naturally occurred. Any one who wanted supplies could get them by going to the relief station where they were and then he could go to another one and get some more if he wanted to do it, and naturally a great deal of waste was unavoidable. At the same time peo-

ple did get fed and I am sure that the amount of suffering from cold and from hunger was surprisingly small, all things considered. At the time Dr. Devine and I reached San Francisco this state of things existed which I have described and the people who were not in tents had some kind of shelter, — old shacks that had been built up on vacant lots out of pieces of wood and iron, and bricks and boxes thrown together, and blankets or a piece of oil cloth spread across the top; or two stakes driven in the ground and a pole laid across the top and a blanket thrown over, with three or four people creeping in there in the night, and doing a little cooking of supplies out in front for their meals.

The earthquake destroyed the entire water system in such a way that the water all ran out of the mains. It broke the sewers. It broke the street car lines by buckling up the rails so that they stood up in the streets. In many places the whole street moved sideways two or three feet, so the street car track suddenly swung two feet to one side for a block or half a block, and then came back to the original line. So the street cars were put out of commission. The water system and the electric light system were destroyed. There was not a single public utility left in operation. No lights, no heat, no water, no drainage.

It was essential to do something in a sanitary way and the people were arranged into camps. Without sewer connection, for the necessary drainage and protection of the people, teams were had to haul away garbage and refuse. A great many wagons were impressed into the service, they hauled the stuff down to the shore where flat boats towed it out through the Golden Gate into the ocean.

Orders were issued that no fires should be lighted in any house and that order still exists today. All the cooking is done on open fires, along the streets.

As to the extent of the fire, the burned over section is irregular, but it is about three miles square. Three miles from the Ferry landing when you enter the city, straight back to the West to where you come to the unburnt portion and about three miles from North to South. In that nine square miles, there are only two large unburnt buildings — one is the postoffice and one is the Mint. On the north side of Telegraph Hill, there are three or four Italian houses that escaped the blaze. Everything else is gone in that large territory.

The first thing to do after getting the necessities provided was to get some sort of system into the relief distribution. Dr. Devine and I began trying to bring some system into it. The plan was devised of dividing the city into sections, or districts. The soldiers had districted the city for police purposes and the streets are patrolled at night by soldiers from the Regular Army and also the militia. These police divisions are called districts, and to avoid confusion the several relief divisions are

called sections. So we have seven Red Cross sections. At the head of each section is an officer of the Regular Army, a lieutenant in nearly every case. At the headquarters there is a captain or major who is in charge of these lieutenants in the districts. A double-barrelled arrangement was made of the two parallel systems, military and civil. The soldiers through General Greeley received all the supplies that were shipped into San Francisco. All goods that are known to be relief supplies that come in there, no matter to whom they are directed, or for what purpose they come, are taken over and go through the same channel. Any people who have shipped boxes to certain churches, or orders, or individual friends or families, will learn eventually that these things did not reach the people to whom they were sent, but had to be handled in the fashion they were at the distributing station in common. It could not be done in any other way, the military took possession of all supplies that came in, no matter to whom they were addressed, hauled them to the warehouses, assorted them and distributed them through regular stations to the people without any disagreement whatever. It may seem a little harsh at first thought, but any one who could have seen the situation at the other end of the line would know that it was the only possible way supplies sent out by private individuals, churches or orders, to private individuals, churches or orders, could be distributed. Any other way they would be lying in boxes up in front of cars or dumped out beside the cars on the track, unopened to this day. The military people receive the supplies that come in. They have provided the great army trains with eight or ten mule teams and immense wagons, and they haul the stuff from the cars to central warehouses where the bales and boxes are opened and counted up and classified. Then they haul them each morning from the warehouse to the one hundred and fifty relief stations. That is as far as the military goes.

The Red Cross in each section has a Red Cross Chairman. At first the relief stations, as I explained them, sprang up like mushrooms and any man who cared to establish one did so, but now each relief station has a little district mapped out around it. All these relief stations have been taken over by the authorities and placed under the authority of the Red Cross, so that the Red Cross Chairman of the section is responsible clear down the line to the people who distribute and the people who receive the supplies.

The Red Cross has established a Registration Department with 150 school teachers — the schools were, of course, closed by this disaster — as investigators. A registration card has been provided, on which is entered the name of the head of the family, his occupation, the union, the church, and any fraternal order

to which he belongs, the names of his last employer and the next to the last employer.

A labor bureau has been established and has access to this registration, the cards all being brought into the central office in the same large school house which has been assigned as headquarters for all of the different lines of relief work. The registration is in charge of Dr. C. C. Plane, of the University of California. Dr. Plane was in charge of the United States Census of the Philippines and is a citizen of note and a strong man. He has come from the University and is working away in charge of the registration, with these one hundred and fifty school teachers working under him.

Now when the investigators visit, they take a little food station district at a time and they just sweep through that systematically from one side to the other. It only consists of a few blocks and they visit every house, if there are houses there, no matter whether the people are getting supplies or not, to find out who is there. They register everybody in the house whether they are in tents or houses. They find out whether they are getting supplies and if they are not, whether they need supplies. They fill out two cards. One is the registration card containing the information I spoke about, that is turned into headquarters, and the other is the ration card and this has written on it in ink the name of the man, and the number of people in his family. The number of rations to which his family is entitled is put on in a large square on top of the card in a figure. The figure "8," "6," "4," or "2." The food stations are all numbered and the number of this man's food station to which he naturally belongs is written on the card.

When the man wants the allowed rations of tomorrow morning, he takes this card down to the station, presents it at the side where is the desk of the representative of the Red Cross, who takes it and sees that the man is at the right station; that prevents duplication. If it is the right card he then stamps the date on that card, which means that the card can't be used again that day, which prevents duplication at the same station. He passes down the line and he is entitled we will say to three rations of bacon. One man's duty there is to hand out bacon, and the bacon is all done up in paper wrappers or packages of one ration size, two ration size and three ration size. He says how many rations and looks at the card and he hands it to the man, and the man or woman drops it in the basket and walks down the counter. The different articles of food included in the ration for the day, are slipped into his basket and he hardly stops as he walks down that line. Of 313,000 people that were fed there the day before I left San Francisco all received their supplies within eight hours.

Each day the man in charge of the food station makes out a

requisition for the food he will need the next day. This is sent to the military officer in command to the section and he looks it over. If he knows something asked for is not in stock and something else is, he makes a substitution, he O K's that, and it goes to General Headquarters and is issued the next morning early and hauled out by the Government wagons to the station.

Some of the food stations are now being closed up as the number of people to be fed is lessened.

The clothing comes by the Government wagons the same way and is hauled to the great Public Central School building, which is the clothing store. Clothing, blankets and shoes are all taken there and they are folded up and spread on the counters. People who need clothing and are found by the visitors through the district, get an order from the visitor for the articles of clothing needed, shoes for the children or whatever is needed. The head of the family is given this order for certain garments.

The family or the representative of the family goes to the Red Cross Chairman, who approves this order for clothing or blankets. The family then goes to the clothing store and is fitted out, and the children try on shoes and get pairs that fit, and men and women get clothes that fit, and their clothes are more becoming and comfortable than they could be if we sent small quantities out miscellaneously to these food stations, to be distributed from there and selected by the people.

The drugs and medicines are all kept at the Presidio at the Government Reservation, and there is also a physician in each one of the sections.

A Government surgeon, Colonel Torney, has charge of the sanitation of the whole city, and he has assistants in charge of the sanitation of each of the sections. Orders for medicines, drugs, disinfectants and that sort of thing, are made by sections each day and given to Colonel Torney, who issues the stuff.

That work now covers, in a general way, the relief measures which have been taken up to date. It shows how the population is handled. The greatest number of people, I think, fed from the relief stations in any one day, was about 325,000. I had a telegram day before yesterday which said that day 22,000 had been fed, so the number is largely reduced. At first everybody who remained in the city had to be fed from the relief stations, because all the supplies of the city had been seized. Money could not buy anything the first day that I was there. Mr. James D. Phelan, who was probably the wealthiest man in San Francisco, Chairman of the Finance Committee, was taking me around in his big French automobile, to show me the relief stations. It was getting dusk and at the last station Mr. Phelan drew his rations and he carried home three loaves of bread for his supper. Dr. Devine and I were assigned to a house, a very

pleasant residence, the owners of which had gone to the country, a residence not hurt by fire. We have a maid that gets our breakfast and takes care of things, and every morning the maid stands in the relief line and draws rations for Dr. Devine and me and comes back and cooks breakfast for us in the gutter, just outside of the sidewalk.

There is no water for houses that had been built in a way for water supply, but I think the greatest hardship was from going without light, except candles which have to be put out at 10 o'clock, or else a soldier comes and sticks his bayonet in the door and arrests you.

The constructive work to be done is something beyond any one's ability to describe. Here are 200,000 people who are burned out absolutely. That is half the population. Not half of the area of the residence section, not nearly half, but the crowded part, was burned. The Battery sections, the tenement region, the Italian quarter, and the other foreign quarters were burned, and the result is said to be that fully half the people of the city are without any sort of home.

Now suppose we have plenty of money, and that of course is a thing that is very doubtful. To date about $7,000,000 has been received, or promised, or pledged. It would be impossible to build houses for two hundred thousand people before next winter, when the rains come and when living in tents is a very precarious thing, as in fact it is in the summer in San Francisco, where the fogs are very heavy and very cold.

The question then, the first pressing question, now that the machinery for supplying food and clothing is in operation and working smoothly, is sanitation. We can't afford to have an epidemic of typhoid break out at San Francisco in these camps. In Golden Gate Park there are probably 40,000 people in tents today. In other camps around in the city and lining the bay, on the opposite side to the East and to the North also, there are other camps, so that I presume 175,000 people are sleeping in tents tonight. The question of sanitation is the most pressing.

Then after that comes the question of getting the people back into normal life. They have of course employment now, the day laborer will have a world of work to do in clearing off these nine square miles of ruins. There is a tremendous task to be done there. The building trades people will have a great deal of work presently. Cheap wooden buildings are springing up on ruins or in vacant spaces where there were no buildings before, and some work is getting done there.

It was estimated, at the time of my leaving San Francisco, that probably twenty thousand men were at work in and about the ruins and putting up temporary buildings. But people whose work was sedentary, store clerks, bookkeepers, stenographers and salesmen and saleswomen, doctors, lawyers that were burned out;

they have nothing to do; no business; no employment, and it is very difficult to know what can be done for them. The manufacturing institutions were nearly all destroyed, and it is very hard to know what can be done with the people in them. Many of the men will be able to get employment at $2 a day, which is what they are paying for day laborers, but suppose people are given employment at $2 a day; that does not build houses for them; that does not stock up their houses with furniture, dishes, beds, bedding and winter clothing, and the relief fund will have to be drawn upon for that. The relief fund has been drawn upon, of course very heavily, almost extravagantly in the first rush, but unavoidably so. It is being saved now and very carefully guarded, and will go just as far, I can promise, as it is possible to make it go, but what the outcome is to be no man can predict.

I have never imagined that a great people could be so cheerful and so plucky, under such dreadful circumstances, as these people have been. The real situation in San Francisco is worse than any story that I have read in the dispatches thus far. They are true in everything except the loss of life which was, fortunately, very much smaller than the first dispatches indicated.

General Greeley sent his inspectors about and they reported that they had found a record of the death of two hundred and ninety-five people. They were not able to find any more. There may be some still buried in the ruins, because they have not been cleared up, except that a few streets have been opened so that traffic can go back and forth.

There is only the normal amount of illness and the great rush of nurses and physicians out there was needless and the general sensation that the loss of life would be heavy has not proved to be the case. There are trained nurses from all over the United States who have not a thing in the world to do, or who are working at things that have no more to do with nursing than the kind of work I do.

A party of fourteen nurses came down from Seattle. They got there late in the afternoon, and the first question that the Committee of Relief asked them, when they filed into the relief room at five o'clock, was whether they had return transportation. They said with some surprise that they had and the Chairman of the Committee said, "There is a train that starts for Seattle tomorrow morning at nine o'clock," and they went home on that train.

A great many physicians came and have gone home. The physicians of San Francisco are thrown out of their ordinary practice. They have no patients who can pay at the present time or very few, and they are amply able to take care of all the sickness of San Francisco and then are not nearly as busy as they would like to be.

The bulk of the people do not understand yet how dreadful

a loss they have sustained. They have all suffered and gone down together, and there is over all good fellowship and good cheer. They tell each other they are having a good time, and that keeps them from realizing for a while what has happened to them. They say "we are not awake yet." A wealthy business man who had lost everything that he had in the world, said to me the other day, "There is something wrong with me. I don't think right." He said, "Most of the while I think I am all right, and again I know I am not all right." I am giving it just the way he said it. It gives a little idea of the confusion in that man's mind. Dr. Devine and I among many others have been riding around in an automobile, because there are no cars and we had to hurry, and that is the particular method of locomotion in San Francisco nowadays. We have a man in charge of our automobile who had a large machine shop and employed several hundred men. He was rich and was the owner of one of the first automobiles in this country. He traveled over Europe in an automobile and has been all over the world. He is driving our automobile today because he knows all about them. The other day he was standing out in front of headquarters of the army while we were attending a Committee meeting inside. As he stood there there came along a gentleman who had bought $20,000 worth of machinery of him just a few days before the earthquake. The customer who had bought this large supply of machinery came along and he saw our automobile driver standing there working on the machine and he said, "Hello, Jones, is that you." Jones said "Yes." He said, "What are you doing here?" and Jones said, "I am driving this automobile. What are you doing here?" and he said, "I am driving that automobile."

The open fires in the streets in front of every house have become so nearly a permanent institution, having been in use now for several weeks, and with no immediate prospect of getting back, that the people have been erecting little screens around them, little curtains and torn shutters off their windows. They have nailed them together so as to get a little privacy and to keep the wind from blowing the fire away, and make it possible to cook the supper. The spirit of the people is shown by the kind of things that they write on the walls of these little shacks along the streets, of which there are literally thousands and thousands.

A great many people have put some kind of a motto or expression of sentiment in the name they have given their place. The St. Francis Hotel, having been the finest hotel in San Francisco, a great many of these places are called the St. Francis, and I noticed quite a number of Waldorf-Astorias, but I think perhaps the sentiment that exists there could hardly be better

shown than by a motto that I saw scrawled on one of these little temporary street kitchens. It was this: "Make the best of it; forget the rest of it."

SIXTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday, May 14, 1906.

The Conference was called to order by Mr. Timothy Nicholson.

Secretary Johnson read the following telegram from Mrs. Lucy M. Sickels:

> "Sorry not to be with you. First time in fifteen years. Am sending two dollars and a half for copy of proceedings. Add my name to the list."

I ask the unanimous consent of the Conference to enroll Mrs. Sickels as though she were here present now.

Unanimous consent was given by a rising vote.

The Secretary also read a telegram from President Edward T. Devine, San Francisco.

> *Alexander Johnson, Bellevue Stratford, Philadelphia:*
>
> Encouraging first meeting yesterday of Superintendents Relief Stations, over one hundred present. Extraordinary appreciation of sound relief principles. Frankel told Miss Higgins it was proof of value of volunteers, but we all feel it is also evidence of possiblity of greater democracy in administration of relief. These men are close to those who are helped. Food lines reduced 20 per cent. in one week, but a tedious pull ahead; you will hear discouraging and adverse reports, work of rehabilitation of families now foremost concern.
>
> EDWARD T. DEVINE.

THE CHAIRMAN: — There was a committee appointed at one of our former sessions to prepare resolutions relative to some of our deceased members. The chairman of that committee will now offer the resolutions.

MR. F. B. SANBORN: — Mr. F. H. Wines and myself, were appointed a committee to prepare resolutions in regard to four

deceased officers of the Conference, whose decease has taken place either since the last Conference, or so near that time that their death was not announced. Dr. Wines being called away, it is left for me to offer the resolutions. The members whose names we honor today are Ex-Presidents Andrew E. Elmore, Albert O. Wright and Philip C. Garrett and Vice-President L. G. Kinne.

Resolved, That in the decease of Andrew E. Elmore of Wisconsin, one of the founders of this Conference, for a quarter century one of its officers, and its President in 1882, — a constant presence at annual meetings from 1873 to 1895, after which the infirmities of age detained him at home, — we have to lament the loss of our oldest and one of the most distinguished of our associates. Mr. Elmore was probably the first to propose a Conference of the Boards of Public Charity, and certainly one of the most active for more than twenty years to promote our objects and advance our interests; and this he was enabled to do, not only by his native wisdom, his acquired experience and the generosity of his character, but by that sunny and kindly temper which made him the friend of mankind, and the most genial and witty companion.

Prof. Albert O. Wright of Wisconsin, with his well-trained and richly stored mind and persevering industry, — coming into the work of Public Charity under the auspices of Mr. Elmore and his sturdy colleague, the late Henry H. Giles, — was able to render such service to his State and to this Conference, over which he presided at Grand Rapids in 1896, as will long be remembered by those who witnessed his modest and effective labors, his clear intelligence and his public spirit.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett, a native of this city of Brotherly Love, a Friend by birth, by name and by nature, was not only a leading citizen of Philadelphia and the State of Pennsylvania, but of the Nation. Successful in the management of his own business, and of that entrusted to his hands by others, he was, in the varied relations which he sustained to public life, a wise counsellor, and an efficient administrator, actuated by a sense of duty and of personal responsibility which was deep and untiring. This is true of him as a member, and for a time President of the Board of State Charities, as a manager of the Associated Charities, as a trustee of his denomination at the colleges at Haverford and Bryn Mawr, as an Indian Commissioner, and as one of those specially entrusted with the oversight of the care of the insane in this commonwealth, and of the foreign immigration entering the United States at the port of Philadelphia, under the general direction of the State Board. In his removal, as we trust, to a higher and wider field of activity, we have sustained a great and irreparable loss.

In the death of Judge Lavega G. Kinne of Iowa, one of the

Vice-Presidents of the present Conference, we have lost one of its most valued and able members, who, by his attainments as a jurist, the purity and elevation of his character, and his services as a member of the Iowa State Board of Control, gained the applause and confidence of those who knew him best, and deserves to be long remembered after death.

In presenting these resolutions it falls to my lot, by the sad privilege of age and the dearer obligations of long friendship, to add a few words concerning the Nestor of our Conference, Mr. Elmore, and his trusted adjutant, Prof. Wright. I may use this military term in no other sense of subordination than this — that any of us younger soldiers of philanthropy might have been proud to take direction from so able and magnanimous a leader as Mr. Elmore. Our friend Wright held the same relation to him in Wisconsin, that I was privileged to hold, in Massachusetts, to Dr. Howe, who laid there the foundation of our system of public charity, as Mr. Elmore did in Wisconsin. In the light of that direction and the loyalty of that friendship, we were both enabled to accomplish more than would else have been practicable. Mr. Elmore was a man to whom we could exactly apply the term "unique," not in the sense of eccentricity, but of original, abounding and versatile vitality. I met him first in his active middle life, though just entering the portals of age; and I saw him last in his dignified retirement at Green Bay, when he was approaching ninety, and when that unweariable physical activity was denied him. But the agility of his mind, the noble movements of his immortal spirit, were as noteworthy at ninety as at sixty. His thoughts still went out naturally toward good causes and good men; he had still the same high-souled censure for the self-seeking and the showily ineffective — some remnant of ancient prejudice, if you choose to say so, but all glowing in the mellow, sunset light of generous and considerate old age. He did not show even that weariness of long life which we pardon in the extremely aged, who have done their life-work long and well, that sentiment to which Shakespeare, who said everything best, gave expression in the lofty utterance of old Mortimer:

> But now thy uncle is removing hence,
> As princes do their seats, when they are cloyed
> With long continuance in a settled place.

Our Nestor was ready to leave the world in which he lived so long and so usefully, but he had still friends to cherish and causes to promote. To these he gave his unselfish thought, even until the dark curtain fell.

Our recollections of Mr. Elmore can only by an effort be tinged with the sadness of ordinary loss; he had lived a strenuous but a very cheerful life; and he parted from it only as we leave the house of one friend to journey on, well satisfied, to the

more stately mansion of a greater Friend. Said one old Puritan pastor to another on his dying bed: "Brother, you go to receive the reward of great labors." To which the humble Christian replied: "Brother, I go to receive great mercies." And so long as the blessed merciful obtain mercy, we need have small anxiety for the future of our friend.

Of Professor Wright, I have knowledge less recent than of Mr. Elmore. But I found in him, as we all did for many years, ready abilities, special knowledge, careful diligence in whatever task he undertook, and a mind always open to the ever-advancing ideas and hopes of philanthropy and justice. As an inspector of institutions he was keenly observant, and in the exposure of fallacies no less keen, fearless and sagacious.

MR. HART: — It is a great privilege to be able to say a few words about my dear friend. When I became Secretary of the Minnesota State Board of Charities, in 1883, I had some correspondence with Mr. Wright and he consented to initiate me into the workings of the Board of Charities. He met me at the city of La Crosse and together we traveled, visiting and inspecting institutions alternately on the two sides of the Mississippi river, institutions in Wisconsin and institutions in Minnesota, and I then imbibed the spirit in which he inspected institutions. He went into that work with a thoroughness which made him master of the exact conditions of the institutions. When he found false economies he had a kindly and convincing way of presenting the matter to those who had charge. He would rather work with people than against them, but when he found an incorrigible spirit, a stubborn spirit, an adherent of a wrong method because they had begun on that method, who would not listen to advice, then he had, as has been indicated, the courage of his convictions. Prof. Wright was the equal of any public officer in his integrity, high sense of honor and respect for truth. He hated sham. He was a soldier in the War of the Rebellion. He was at the head of the institution at Fox Lake, a member of the Board of Trustees of the college at Green Bay, he published an educational journal until nearly the time of his death and carried it on for many years very successfully. He was the author of a number of admirable text books which are still extensively used in the schools. They were books on the history of government and on the constitutions of the different states. Prof. Wright was President of this Conference when it met in Grand Rapids, and in presiding there and in his masterly presidential address he reached the high water mark of his position in this Conference. His address was a noble one, and it gave him his true rank. We never have had in this Conference a more simple-minded, a more true and a more unselfish man than Prof. Wright. I had an opportunity to personally observe that. There was an opening in Chicago, work for which he was eminently qualified and which

he might properly have sought, but my name had been mentioned in that connection and Prof. Wright absolutely refused to allow himself to be in the position of a candidate for the place, but accepted a government appointment as inspector of Indian schools, a place he filled almost up to the time of his death.

THE CHAIRMAN: — I have been requested to make a few remarks with reference to our friend, Phillip C. Garrett. I have known him since 1855. The resolution which has been read concerning him covers in a few words many of the most eminent acts of his life. One very important feature has been overlooked. It seems rather strange in some respects that when a fight is to be carried on a Friend is selected to do it. In 1881, when civic righteousness was under foot and needed to be elevated in this good city of Philadelphia, a committee of one hundred citizens was appointed to take charge and clear up the atmosphere, and Philip C. Garrett was chairman of that committee. In the recent fight, a fight that is still going on here, strange as it may seem, they selected another Friend to lead the forces. But Friends don't use carnal weapons. They are peace men, but great fighters in moral questions. So was Philip C. Garrett. If you will examine the records of this Conference from 1881 until 1900 you will find the broad character of this man's mind, you will find his addresses upon a variety of subjects. You will find he wrote upon all the subjects that claimed the attention of this Conference up to the year 1900 — charity organizations, defectives, the merit system in our state institutions, immigration, a question which has been discussed for twenty-five years and is getting hotter than ever. He was so modest he would object to anything like eulogy. By the grace of God he was what he was, and he, being dead, yet speaketh.

MR. JOHNSON: — May I say a few words about Judge Kinné. He has been a member of the Conference for a good many years and for the past six or seven years our State Corresponding Secretary for Iowa. Judge Kinné belonged to the Board of Control which has always been marked by the exceptionally grand quality of its members. It has been a very successful board and has done a work with the institutions of Iowa, which were by no means in bad order at the time the Board was established, which has been as remarkable in its results in bringing about co-operation and efficiency, as that of any other board in the country. In all these things, Judge Kinné was among the leaders. Shortly before his death, the board began efforts to secure a new state sanatorium. Judge Kinné was specially interested in that, and just before he died, the bill to create the new institution was passed by the Legislature with appropriation sufficient to begin the work. Judge Kinné was a splendid specimen of the high grade Western man, full of life and energy, yet kindly and sympathetic.

MR. HART: — As soon as the Board of Control of Iowa was organized, they issued an order forbidding officers and employes of institutions from paying political assessments, under penalty of dismissal from their positions. The result was to eliminate the influence of politics from the management.

Mr. Chairman, I would like to move the adoption of these resolutions which have been presented.

Which, being duly seconded, was agreed to.

THE CHAIRMAN: — Our friend, Dr. Wines, has left the city on another errand. The chair will appoint Dr. Chas. R. Henderson, of Chicago, as a member of the Committee on Resolutions in place of Dr. Wines.

The Committee on Resolutions then presented the following resolution relative to uniform statistics:

"*Resolved*, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction urges upon all responsible for the administration of state institutions, the need for more uniform statistics relating to population and finances; That the official boards or bodies having supervision of state charities and the heads of the various state charitable and correctional institutions be requested to give one page for each year in their reports, setting forth a few important facts, in conformity with the blank prepared by the Committee on Statistics; that the Secretary of the Conference is hereby directed to bring this resolution to the attention of all persons interested and request their compliance therewith and their reply to the request."

On motion, duly seconded, the resolution was agreed to.

THE CHAIRMAN: — This is now the regular session, which will be opened with prayer by Dr. Laws.

AFTER PRAYER.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The subject of this session is Defectives, and the meeting will be turned over to the chairman of the section, Mr. Edward R. Johnstone, Superintendent New Jersey Training School, Vineland, N. J.

MR. JOHNSTONE: — The Secretary tells me that the printed copy of the Report of this Committee is ready and will be distributed at the door as you go out. It will therefore not be read at this time. In getting up the report your committee conferred with a number of members, not only of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, but also of the National

Educational Association, and the suggestions that were made for topics to be considered at this meeting were, therefore, from educators as such, as well as from sociologists as such. Perhaps the most important topic and the one that was emphasized most frequently was the need of special care and training for defectives of all classes, including the blind and deaf, as well as the feeble minded, and the most important thing of all was that there should be permanent custodial care for these people, particularly those of the gentler sex. Permanent custodial care for incorrigibles was also strongly emphasized. We will have Dr. Taylor's paper this morning which treats of difficult boys, and which I think will perhaps lead us to believe that wrong doing is either the result of ignorance or disease.

I ask you to use your force and influence to have the medical colleges of the United States teach their students to recognize mental defect when they see it. I understand that there is not a state school or normal school, that is a school for teachers, in the United States, that makes any attempt, except in psychology, to teach their pupils to recognize mental defect. In view of the high percentage of defective children found in the primary grades of our public schools, surely some special effort should be made so that these two professional classes, the teachers and the physicians at least, should know how to recognize them at once. We frequently have children sent to our institutions with word from the teacher, or from the physician, that after they have been there a few weeks or a few months, they can be turned out completely cured. And when that comes from a physician or an educator we feel there is something wrong somewhere. We do not believe either of them willfully lie about it and we are very sorry, indeed, that they are ignorant of it.

Another topic is preventable causes of defectiveness. We hear about poor nutrition, over-pressure in the public schools, and all those things, but give too little attention to them. Those things are demanding greater attention all the time, and I am happy to say at the meeting next Wednesday afternoon, the topic of preventable causes of defectiveness, will be treated.

The question of laws is also a large one and one that can hardly be touched upon here. First of all rational marriage laws. I think perhaps one of the worst things in our marriage laws to-day is that feature which permits people to meet a minister and become man and wife before him in three minutes. I hope very much that there will be in our own state, as well as in other states very soon, an amendment to the marriage laws which will at least require that the pastor who performs the ceremony shall have known the people for a week before he marries them. Perhaps, later we may get medical inspection of folks contemplating marriage as well as of public school children.

We need in our various states laws which will commit de-

fective children to an institution, and laws which will require the institution to hold them until they are set free by some competent tribunal. Just now we have too many feeble-minded children whose parents are feeble-minded and who come and demand from us children who have no business to be out in the world. The securing of such laws should have our special attention. The subject of one of the departments of our section is the new Pennsylvania institution for feeble-minded, and a part of the report will be found in one of our bulletins of the Conference and the rest in the proceedings of the Conference when published.

And the last thought was that of the scientific value of our institutions. That is a subject that has had entirely too little attention. When the public supports an institution, the public has a right to something besides the institution merely taking care of or training the classes of children that are sent to it. Every public institution owes it to the public, that it shall be, in so far as it may, a laboratory in which not only the special things of that institution shall be studied, but those things that relate to the general development of the world. We have had a good many encouraging signs along these lines. There are certain institutions in the country to-day that are furnishing and supporting laboratories. The scientific side and the relationship between the different kinds of work are becoming more recognized. The time has come when we have no place for the philanthropist as such, standing alone, or for the educator, standing alone, or for the doctor, standing alone; we want now the combination of the three. We shall have very soon, standing perhaps foremost, not the sociologist or the physiologist, but the "paidologist," a man who will get at the beginning of things, and who will not only teach how to cure the evils that we have but to prevent the evils that are constantly coming upon us. That will, I hope, be an important feature of the work of the Conference next year. We have in our institutions lessons which will prove that it is cheaper to prevent than it is to cure defectiveness. We have lessons for the educator. Our children are under the microscope, so to speak. They move very slowly and their mental actions or attitudes can be studied clearly. We have lessons for the physician because the mind is irregular in its action. Because we have large farms connected with many of our institutions, we have lessons for the agriculturist, and we have lessons for the humanitarian.

(The Report of the Committee begins on page 235.)

Professor Thomas M. Balliet, Ph. D., Dean of the School of Pedagogy, N. Y. University, here read a paper entitled Prehistoric Education of the Race in its Relation to Present Educational Problems. (Page 243.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — Every father and mother who has boys of course will be interested in the subject "Difficult Boys," and I hope you will let the lunch go for a moment and hear Dr. Taylor's paper.

Dr. J. Madison Taylor, Philadelphia, read a paper on "Difficult Boys."*

THE CHAIRMAN:— The discussion of the questions raised in these papers will be continued in the section meetings.

In the discussion upon Preventable Causes of Defectiveness Miss Dora Keen, Secretary of the Public Education Association of Philadelphia, spoke as follows:

In jails, in reformatories, and in nearly all institutions, there is a large percentage of people, whom those in charge recognize as mentally defective persons, not, therefore, responsible for their acts, but yet tried and sentenced, or acquitted, as if responsible; becoming a public charge through acts more or less serious to themselves and to the community, from which they and the community must always suffer. Had the mental defect been discovered young enough for remedy, between 3 and 13 years, instead of growing up at large and becoming a menace or an institutional expense to society, the less defective could have been educated to the point of partial self-support at home, and others would have been placed in custodial institutions *before* the commitment of the acts for which they are now under correction as if responsible.

In other words, while it is important to the schools to rid them of the children who have mental and physical defects, that make them a drag upon the regular classes, and while it is the right of these children to have the elements of education in small, special classes, *the most important reason for the public schools to provide special kindergartens and special day school classes for the backward children is in order to get hold of the backward children as young as possible.* The best way to deal with the problem of the feeble-minded is to find out, at the earliest possible age, each child who needs to be in a special class, if the entire effort of the community for his education is not to be wasted, and the community taxed for his custody, instead of supported by his labor.

Lack of competition is a cause for discouragement leading to rapid degeneracy where backward children are left among normal children in the regular grades. Grouping of these children

* Dr. Taylor's paper is being published in *The Popular Science Monthly*, so that it does not appear in this volume. — — EDITOR.

in special classes, with careful grading, would prevent this progress toward defectiveness. Great importance also attaches to defective eyesight, to adenoid growths obstructing free breathing, and to defective speech as handicaps that contribute largely toward progressive discouragement and defectiveness. Intelligent handling in the schools, careful examinations by medical inspectors of schools, and a corps of school nurses to follow up cases at home until adequate attention on the part of the home has been given, are suggested as the necessary means for preventing general defectiveness as a result of removable physical defects. These defects should be discovered and remedied in regular schools, before they have gone far enongh to produce a condition that will require the child to be sent to a class for backward children. Among 140 children in one special school for truant, incorrigible, and backward children in Philadelphia, 68 had remediable physical defects. Teachers and parents should, however, be led to see the importance of discovering and sending to these classes, or to institutions, (the decision depending on the degree of defect) at the earliest possible age, all children incapable of progress in the regular grades through lack of capacity. Philadelphia has 190 backward children in 7 centres, 10 classes, while the number of such children is estimated at 2,200. Only when enough classes are established, and enough institutions, can we get hold of all these children at an age early enough to give them and the community a fair chance to train them. Special classes enable us to discover all defectives while young, to help some to become useful citizens, and to bring others into the institutions in due time.

COMMITTEE ON TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS.

Meeting Monday Afternoon, May 14.

The chairman of the committee, Jeffrey R. Brackett, Ph. D., Director of the School for Social Workers, Boston, opened the meeting.* †

The committee in charge of this meeting agreed that it can be used most profitably in discussion rather than formal addresses. The three topics selected, which cover best the most of the questions submitted by members of the committee, are:

---

* For articles bearing directly on this subject in proceedings of previous Conferences, see International Congress of Charities, Chicago, 1893; National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1894 and 1895; under titles, Sociology in Institutions of Learning; 1897, Mary E. Richmond; 1901 and 1904, Jeffrey R. Brackett; 1905, Graham Taylor.

† See report of the Committee on Training of Social Workers, p. 445.

Qualifications to be Emphasized for Social Work, the discussion to be opened by James F. Jackson, Superintendent of the Associated Charities of Cleveland, Ohio; Relation of Colleges and Universities to Schools of Philanthropy, etc., the discussion to be opened by Professor Frank A. Fetter of Cornell University; Correlation of Class Instruction and Practical Work, the discussion to be opened by Zilpha D. Smith, School for Social Workers, Boston. The discussions were animated and interesting, but were not stenographically reported. That the hall was filled by an attentive audience, for two hours, on a warm May afternoon, is one mark of the growing interest in this subject.

SEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Monday, May 14, 1906, 8 P. M.

The Conference was called to order by Mr. Frank Tucker, Chairman of the Committee on Charitable Finance.

THE CHAIRMAN: — We will open the session with prayer by Dr. Bickney.

AFTER PRAYER.

Mr. Tucker then read the report of the Committee on Charitable Finance. (Page 196.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — I have the pleasure of introducing to you a man who has investigated the accounts of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, who is a member of the mayor's commission of New York City, to revise the accounting system of the municipality. His position is unique in that he is an expert in accountancy and has a strong interest in our social activities. It gives me pleasure to introduce to you Prof. Frederick A. Cleveland, of New York, who will address you on the subject of "Accountancy and Philanthropy."

Prof. Cleveland read his paper. (Page 199.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — Discussion of Prof. Clevelands paper will be opened by Mr. W. C. Ball, of Terre Haute. It is only fair to Mr. Ball to state that the manuscript of Prof. Cleveland's reached him too late to enable him to digest it. It gives me great pleasure to introduce Mr. Ball.

MR. W. C. BALL: — *Gentlewomen and Gentlemen, Members of the Conference:* Quite as much as any one in this audience, I have been interested in and instructed by the admirable paper just read. What I shall say in opening the discussion, in so far as it shall be responsive to what has been read, must be unpre-

meditated, for I have been apprised too recently of what he would say — in fact, like yourselves my knowledge of the statements in his paper is limited to the hearing of it here. I have formulated in advance, however, no decided views running counter to any statements he may have made. I might, and that I certainly could do most heartily, limit myself to a sweeping commendation of the arguments so well set forth.

I can most heartily agree that Professor Cleveland has given us food for judicious reflection. If any one has the right to speak on charitable finance it might be said of him and of the chairman of the evening much of it they have seen and a great part of it they have done. Let it then be understood at the outset in what I shall say, that upon those subjects to which I do not refer I heartily agree with their utterances, and even as to those matters in which my individual opinion may appear to run counter it is more in the seeming than in the reality. Besides, ingenuity in taking exceptions is itself proof of the failure to obtain a favorable ruling from the court.

Now, in the matter of public and private charities, both of them exist and both have their legitimate spheres, and when they come together it should be under the most rigid and exacting rules; otherwise to mix them is apt to injure the efficiency of both. We Americans, and all people I suspect for that matter, for it has its roots in human nature, are disposed to finish up things and wash our hands of them and go about our business, and our way of doing what we call "finishing up a thing" is to enact a law and handing it over to public officials, with money coming out of the public treasury, call that settled. Now getting a thing off our hands in that way does not settle it, unfortunately. On the contrary these things so settled have a fashion of coming back home to roost. They won't stay away. With men and women of the type of those that compose this Conference in charge of all public affairs, the results might be different, but unfortunately we cannot count on that, though it is a happy sign of progress that all over the country matters are mending in this respect, and the persons in these places are of a higher type. Yet with all the public institutions supported by public funds, I still believe that private charity hospitals, social settlements, day nurseries, etc., ought to exist. Sometimes, viewing the thing as a whole, it occurs to me that these institutions are accomplishing the very best results. Now, in my own home town, in Indiana, we have a local society for organized charity, which is supported entirely, with modifications to be mentioned a moment later, by private subscription. But there is certain work that this society does for the general community, cases that are sent to the Friendly Inn, by police officers, and an accurate account is kept of the charge for keeping them there over night, which is ultimately paid by the city. Any one sent to it by the county officials, is charged for

and paid by the county. But for the most part it is paid for by private subscription, and as usually happens in such cases, you all know how that is, a comparatively few people bear the burden. The people who support that charity find it easier to go into their pockets again and again, than to carry the gospel of organized charity to their neighbor. It takes a good deal of talk to do this, and talk has to be effective to take money out of a man's pocket, and that sort of talk isn't cheap. Viewing the subject as a whole, however, it appears to me that those who do this work are benefited as much, or more, in mind and heart and character as the benficiaries themselves are in a humble way. For down deep in everybody's heart is a feeling that carrying on work in which he is interested and in the benefits of which he believes is not really a burden, or if a burden one pleasant to bear. That is the reason people go along because of this dual benefit to the benefactor and the beneficiary. Now with public institutions the taxpayer is only asked to give money, and he does that rather grudgingly, but is never called upon to give himself. Whereas, in a private charity, the greatest thing that any one can give to his neighbor or his brother is a part of himself. For heart hunger is harder to bear than stomach hunger.

THE CHAIRMAN: — We have a few moments more given to the discussion of Prof. Cleveland's paper. Is there any one who would like to make any remarks upon it?

It is an unwritten rule of this conference that no paper shall be presented except by its author unless unanimous consent of the conference is given. We find ourselves somewhat in an embarrassing position. Unfortunately, Mr. Macfarland, who was to read the paper upon "Public Subsidies to Private Charitable Activities," has been detained in Washington, and unless you will give your consent to the reading of his paper by some one, we must end our program here. I hope you will give your consent because I know there are several people who would like to discuss that question.

Unanimous consent was given to have the paper read.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The Secretary will read Mr. Macfarland's paper on "Public Subsidies to Private Charitable Activities."

The Secretary then read Mr. Macfarland's paper. (Page 227.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — The discussion will be opened by Mr. William H. Allen, General Manager New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

MR. ALLEN: — I suggest Mr. Macfarland's paper be illus-

trated by some specific instances from the floor. First, the societies receiving lump sum gifts, which seem to have a detrimental effect upon them. I think it would be very helpful to have some illustrations of the effect of lump sum gifts to private institutions, as for instance, the gift by the State of Pennsylvania to construct some dormitories at White Haven. Is it true that that has weakened the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis or strengthened it? Is it sure that lump sum gifts will injure private societies? I think it would be very helpful to have a statement from some friends in New York on this subject and on the effect it has on the patronage of an institution. It seems to me it would be helpful if we could have some one show us clearly just what kind of visitation is practical, what kind of control is practical by the state in order to insure that the state gets its money's worth when it contributes to a private society. There are a half dozen other subjects which will readily occur to us, but I think we should have these three general questions discussed from the floor, not from the standpoint of theory but from the standpoint of the experience of the particular societies in cities or in states. The general conditions may be different from those of the District of Columbia and we can well afford to stay for sometime longer.

Mr. Williams, (President N. Y. Juvenile Asylum) :—In reply to the suggestions that have been made in Mr. Macfarland's most excellent paper, in his first position I can, from experience with several different societies in New York, heartily concur. I do not believe subsidies wise, from the point of view of the institution. Generally they have the effect of cutting off contributions from the public. I do not believe they are wise from the standpoint of the state because they are not always the equivalent for the service rendered and give opportunity for favoritism. I do believe for certain forms of charity a private institution is decidedly preferable, particularly with regard to institutions for the reformation of children. In order to reform a child that is taken from bad home conditions, it is necessary to have religious teaching, which can certainly be better given in a private than in a public institution. That being the case, it seems to me what the state can do in the case of a committed child, is to pay for services rendered. The state should then have such supervision over the application of the amount that it pays to see that the money is expended for the maintenance of the child and for nothing else. That would prevent favoritism and afford a way in which an institution can be paid more or less adequately for maintenance, according to the degree of maintenance given. But if the state is going to attempt, on its own part, a form of instruction, it at once meets the difficulty of giving anything like proper home conditions and religious training. Its religious training must necessarily be sporadic. If it is to be according to the faith of the parents, then

there must be as many different kinds of religious training as there are kinds of children. The natural method would be to find a home, suitable for a child to be placed in, and then for the state to see that the expense that it is put to is adequate to the care given. Is there anything either unfair or illogical in that position?

Now as to the difference between state practices. We cannot get away from historical tendencies. New York state, from its beginning as a colony to its incorporation as a state, has had its historical growth and institutional growth. To divorce from its present system would be absolutely to reverse its history, and I think it would be to forfeit a very large part of the good effect it has thus far obtained in the care of children. Moreover, it would put the state to an expense in erecting and endowing permanent improvements, expenses that are now borne, and ought to be, by private institutions. If the contract system is pursued, you not only have the advantage I have already pointed out, but the state pays out nothing for permanent improvements. It has been suggested that a concrete example be given. Let me give you one. The institution I represent has at present an investment of between eight and nine hundred thousand dollars. It never received for permanent investment at any time in fifty-five years of its history more than one hundred and fifty thousand dollars of state money and it has paid more than that sum back, in assessments. It has received during the fifty-five years of its history, at the rate of one hundred and four dollars per capita per annum for a dependent child, and one hundred and ten dollars per capita per annum for a delinquent child, and it has paid out during these years more than eight thousand dollars a year, for maintenance alone, in excess of all monies received. In other words, during the first fifty years we paid out a little over four hundred thousand dollars more for maintenance than we received from the state. The state of New York, or county as the case may be, has had the advantage of all the expenditure, in plant, has had its wards cared for at a less expense than actually was incurred by the institution — eight thousand dollars, on an average, less a year than actually incurred. And at the same time these wards have been given the sort of education that the child would have had in public school, under the supervision of the school board. The Department of Charities in the city, and State Board of Charities, has had supervision as to the application of all monies received from the state or city sources.

Mr. W. F. Downey, (Washington): — In regard to Commissioner Macfarland's report I might say something. There were two institutions cut off on account of sectarian principles. One was carried on under the sisters in the Catholic Church and the other the Episcopal sisters. I was a member of the Board of Trade of Washington and it was my duty to investigate the

principles of these institutions, and I found upon close examination that these institutions were carrying on their work at something like seventy-five per cent. less than such work cost the government. In other words, where it cost the government in government institutions one dollar they were provided for in these two institutions I have reference to for less than twenty cents, so it saved the government really eighty per cent. These loving sisters carried on these institutions not as a matter of dollars and cents, but they devoted their lives to the work and it was a work of love they were performing for the poor women who were sent to these institutions. Their work was practical while with the government it was far from being practical.

These sisters, whether they belong to one denomination or another, go forward voluntarily and do the work out of love for God, and to elevate mankind. With the government officials, of course, religious instruction was cut out entirely. They were not permitted to teach any religion there. In these other institutions, in order to reach practical results with the poor unfortunates, they reached the heart and soul, which can be done only by religious teaching. Therefore, I think, from my own personal experience, if the government would give a proportionate amount to each institution proper to take care of these poor men and women, or as the case may be children, where they would guarantee good care, and would do it for probably fifty or seventy-five per cent. less than it would cost the government, it would be wise to send them to such institutions because they would get that religious training that would be of benefit to their morals. I am the founder of the Home of the Good Samaritan, in Washington, in 1895, and that institution has provided for upwards of five thousand men. Those who desire can find interesting and valuable statistics in a recent volume published by the Census Bureau, entitled "Benevolent Institutions," which shows the subsidies given. The volume does not include some of the institutions of the class which has been referred to, viz., private institutions.

Adjourned.

EIGHTH GENERAL SESSION.

(*Tuesday, May* 15, 1906, 10:30 *A. M.*)

The Conference was called to order by Mr. Hart, Chairman of the Committee on Children.

The Committee on Organization of the Thirty-fourth Conference presented their report, which was adopted. (Page 668.)

Mr. T. L. Osborne offered a resolution to require the Secretary to print in the proceedings a list of places of annual meet-

ings, roll of the general officers for each year, etc., which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

THE CHAIRMAN: — The first business is the report of the Committee on Children. I desire to read only a small portion of it. The Committee this year is a composite one. It contains twenty-eight members and was made up with a view to representing all the interests which concern the work of the juvenile courts, orphan asylums, children's homes, state institutions for truant children, etc. The committee is composed of Jews, Catholics, Protestants and those who do not belong to any sect. It is a matter of pride on the part of the chairman to be able to say to you that the report has the signatures of twenty-three members of the committee. There are many things which I believe are not in this report. I suppose every member of the committee had some things in which he believed quite strongly that are not here.

(The report which had previously been distributed, appears on page 87.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — The next paper is to be read by Homer Folks, Secretary N. Y. State Charities Aid Association, and Chairman of the New York Commission on Probation.

Mr. Folks then read a paper entitled "Juvenile Probation." (p. 117.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — I see in this audience some people from whom we would like to hear on the report of the committee, such people as Mr. Robinson, Mr. Hilles and Mr. Bernstein of New York, Mr. Kingsley of Chicago, Mrs. Glenn of Baltimore, Mr. Price. The chair will follow the same plan that has been followed in the past of not calling upon any particular person, with one exception. We are here in the city of Philadelphia, where there is an old and exceedingly efficient society, the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society. I desire to ask at this time that some one representing that society will say a word in the discussion of the report of the committee and give us some idea of what is going on in Philadelphia.

THOMAS A. MCCART, (Penna. Children's Aid Society): — Our society is twenty-four years old. It is organized for the purpose not of creating a home but of placing children in homes, which, as has been stated, is the best course to pursue in regard to defective and delinquent as well as dependent children.

When a child is brought to the society the first thing that is done with it is to see that it is cleansed. It is attired with new clothes. It is sent out and not kept in the home over night, but sent out by one of the visitors of the society and placed in a

home selected and personally inspected by the visitor. The sources from which children are received are the Bureau of Compulsory Education, the almshouses of the eastern section of Pennsylvania and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. In the last twenty-eight months the Juvenile Courts have sent us over seven hundred children and each one of the cases has been personally investigated and the child taken care of until something permanent has been done with it. The cost of carrying on this work, ten hundred and fifty children the past year, was fifty-seven thousand dollars, a little over fifty dollars for each child, and the care with which the homes have been selected has been such that over fifty per cent. of that one thousand children are now taken care of by the people of the homes instead of by the society. During the year there were only seven incorrigibles out of the ten hundred and fifty. I think that is a commentary upon the work of the society in the selection of homes considering the sources from which the children have come. There is no cost for education because the children are sent to the public schools of the section in which they are placed and the persons having charge of the child must send in a report signed by the teacher of the public school in that section, and, also, a blank signed by the minister of the Sunday school to which that child is sent. I would say, too, that where Protestant children are sent out they are placed in Protestant homes, and Catholic children are placed in Catholic homes. There is no sectarianism displayed by this society.

Mr. David S. Tilley, (Boston) : — On the last page of the report of the committee I desire to call your attention to this one sentence: "The unprofessional doctor is no greater a menace to the community than the unprofessional charity worker, and the sooner we cease to tolerate the latter the better it will be for the community." It is presumption on my part to attempt to defend the unprofessional charity worker. My interpretation of the unprofessional charity worker is one who does not devote all his time to that particular line of work, and, therefore, earn his living thereby. And I stand before you as a horrible example of the unprofessional charity worker. I desire to differ from Mr. Pear, because I feel it is unfair for this large gathering to go home believing there is no room in the community for the unprofessional charity worker. There are some of us who are willing to give of our time and ability to do a little, but nature has endowed us with other abilities that cause us to work in a different sphere. But if we are to believe all that has been told us, some of which was emphasized by Mr. Folks a few moments ago, there is great need for the unprofessional worker in doing his share, and I trust you will all continue to use the untrained worker all you can. I do not say that the untrained worker should be in direct charge of work that requires continual attention, but the untrained worker

certainly has his or her place, under the proper guidance of a well-directed organization.

MR. W. H. PEAR, (Boston): — It is only a question of terminology. The unprofessional worker is not Mr. Tilley. I regard him as very professional. Unpaid and paid, of course, are terms we are accustomed to hear. Mr. Tilley and others like him in Massachusetts are doing some of the most professional work that is being done there. I wish to leave that impression with you.

MISS DORA KEEN: — I desire to call attention to one point in the address of the former speaker for the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, and that is the fact that that society is now receiving children from the Board of Public Education in this city and acting as the agent for the board. I call attention to this new policy because I do not know of any other place where such a policy has been adopted. I think that in this society and the parental school, is recognized the true method of dealing with incorrigible and truant children. At the suggestion of persons interested in education, the policy has been adopted by the Board of Public Education in this city, within three months and is working excellently. The children are committed through the Juvenile Court in such cases as the Children's Aid Society, after investigation, recommends. They are committed on petition of the Board of Public Education through its bureau of compulsory education, and the parent is ordered to pay that part of the child's support that the investigation has shown him able to pay, the Board of Public Education undertakes to be responsible for the balance. This plan has been adopted for all children under twelve years of age when removal from home to a different environment seems to be requisite to secure their regular attendance at school, after a trial of all other plans to secure regular attendance has failed.

MRS. WILLIAMSON, (N. J.): — In New Jersey our system is rather different from the systems that are in use in the appointment of probation officers in some other states of the union. We are appointed by the judge and the salary is paid by the County Boards of Freeholders. We are really court officers and subject to the orders of the court. Several of us here to-day, especially the probation officers of Hudson county, and others from large communities and cities, Jersey City, and Hoboken, are very anxious, indeed, to ask Mr. Folks one question. The problem of enlisting the services of outsiders in various ways has been brought before us many times. We have been extremely anxious to do what we possibly could, to enlist the sympathy and support and co-operation and work of people outside of our official force, but we haven't seen our way clear to have such appointments made. We haven't yet found out how we can handle committees. We do not know where the appointment should come from. I

am anxious to have Mr. Folks explain to us what he thinks should be the method of appointing these committees. It is very necessary that we should have the co-operation of citizens. But there is one point which is a very serious one, and that is, being court officers, we have to carry on our work exactly as the judge and all the officers of the court do, and we try to do it in New Jersey from that standpoint. We are the officers who enforce the law and bring the boy or girl before the court. In our city it is absolutely necessary for us to do it from the standpoint of the judiciary and to do it exactly as the court is run in other ways. We are not allowed to let sentiment govern in any regard. I understand that in Indianapolis they have very large committees which are doing effective work. Perhaps, we might hear from them later, but if Mr. Folks will kindly enlighten us in regard to this one particular point, he will do the Association of Probation Officers in New Jersey, and we have a strong association of probation officers, a very great favor.

MR. FOLKS: — I speak more largely from the point of view of the larger cities, the cities of the first and second class. In New York we suggested this plan: That certain societies, charitable societies, and societies which have heretofore taken part in probation work, submit to the mayor of that city a list of names and from these lists so submitted the mayor might, not must, select the members of the unpaid, slowly-changing probation commission. That is not an untried experiment in New York. It is exactly the plan under which the Board of Trustees of the Bellevue Hospital has been created and appointed. That Board was created for the explicit purpose of taking this great city hospital out of the realm of party politics. That provision of the charter was relied upon to accomplish that result and it has been successful. There is behind the recommendations of those societies no appointing force, but there is behind them the moral sanction and the moral influence of independent groups of citizens, which any appointing officer is loath to confront. So much for the large cities. As to the counties, I must admit that we do not see any practical plan for the creation of such unpaid boards. We feel that if we could secure the creation of such boards in the larger cities that would be as far as we could go at present, and, therefore, we adopted, without change substantially, the New Jersey plan in our recommendations for probation work, outside of cities of the first and second class. That is to say, appointments by the county judge to serve in all the courts within the county. I see no inherent reason for not having such a board appointed by the county judge, under a law providing for such appointments.

As to retaining the interest of the judiciary in probation work, I hope nothing I have said will suggest that I would like to have the judges do less than they do now or take less interest

in individual cases, but I would like to have them realize what they are not doing now, and what is not being done now, and would like to give them an effective piece of machinery for carrying into effect plans and desires in regard to persons placed on probation. We provided in our draft of the bill, that the judge might lay down terms and conditions of probation or suspended sentence, and that those terms and conditions must be observed in every particular by all the probation machinery therein created; that a case should come back for consideration by a judge whenever he wished and as often as he wished, but the central thought was this, to provide an executive arm for carrying into effect the decisions and directions of the judicial officer.

MRS. WILLIAMSON: — You used the word "independent committee." Now, upon that hinges all the trouble in connection with probation work, — the outsiders, the independent committee. Do you want this committee regulated by rules which shall be laid down by the judge. It that the idea?

MR. FOLKS: — No; but the commission shall carry into effect any rules laid down by the judge for any particular case.

MRS. WILLIAMSON: — And where will be the probation officer under these circumstances?

MR. FOLKS: — The probation officer will be responsible to his commission for carrying into effect the rules laid down by the judge for a particular case.

MRS. WILLIAMSON: — Not responsible to the judge?

MR. FOLKS: — No.

MRS. WILLIAMSON: — That seems to me the weak spot. I have one case in my mind to-day of a boy in my own town, which is a second class city, where I in a moment of weakness, as I see now, allowed four or five prominent citizens to take up the case and see how it could be handled. For six months that committee has been shilly-shallying backward and forward without doing anything for the boy, simply because they were not responsible to anybody and could not arrive at any decision, because they did not understand the principles of probation. Eventually the judge interfered and took the boy out of their hands and placed him back with the probation officer, and, of course, I as probation officer, sent him to the State Home for Boys. He robbed the poor box in one of our prominent churches and it seemed necessary that he should have discipline. But these prominent citizens, controller of the city, the mayor and four others, could not arrive at any conclusion in regard to that boy. In the first place the parents interfered, in the second place the aunts interfered, and you know, all of you who are in that work, what that interference means. Don't misunderstand me for I fully approve of the cooperation of the committee outside of the probation officer, if you can get that committee properly appointed. I hope Mr. Folks will help us out of the dilemma.

CHAIRMAN HART: — I think Judge Mack can give us some helpful suggestions along this line.

Judge Mack's address will be found on page 123.

MISS IDA L. GREGORY, (Colorado): — I should like to correct a statement made by Judge Mack in regard to the work of the Juvenile Court in Denver. We have our chief probation officer and handle hundreds of cases which never see the judge at all. There are girls who have never seen Judge Lindsey, and sometimes a week will elapse before we see him ourselves. The work is handled through the chief probation officer. While the judge goes in and personally talks with a great many boys, and once in a while our girls, he is not his own chief probation officer. He has more time perhaps than some other judges, but we realize that he needs his time. It is an individual work with each officer in Denver.

CHAIRMAN HART: — As previously stated the meeting will be closed at 12:30, unless the section desires to extend the time. As I hear no motion to that effect we will give two or three minutes to Mr. Folks to close the discussion.

MR. FOLKS: — I only want to define the word "independent" as I used it. I used it in reference to the Board of Trustees of the Bellevue Hospital. I meant to suggest by an "independent commission," a commission that would be independent of political considerations — simply that. It is a body of independent citizens of standing and force. The fact that five or six citizens in a certain county, could not agree as to what should be done with some particular child at a particular time, and that the judge recalled the child and decided for himself, does not in the least militate against the appointment of such a commmission. That power over the child resides in the court, irrespective of any laws that may be passed. It is quite creditable on the whole I think, that a group of volunteers gave the matter sufficient thought to realize that they had a difference of opinion. We want to put a stop to certain kinds of work. I mention one instance. One hundred and fifty, in round numbers, of children were placed in the space of about a year under the oversight of the probation officer — an excellent man, an intelligent man, but a busy man, who never visited the home of any one of these children and he never made but one report in all that time to the judge.

NINTH GENERAL SESSION.

Tuesday Evening, May 15th, 1906.

MR. R. W. DEFOREST, presiding:—This evening's meeting will be opened by prayer by the Reverend Father Drumgold, Professor of St. Joseph's Theological Seminary and Spiritual Director of the Medina Settlement House.

AFTER PRAYER.

MR. DEFOREST:—The subject of this evening is "Neighborhood Work" and this session will be presided over by Mrs. John M. Glenn of Baltimore.

MRS. JOHN M. GLENN, Chairman:—Mrs. Mary Roberts Smith, who is the Chairman of the Committee on "Neighborhood Work," has been detained in California on account of the great disaster there and so I am asked to take her place.

The Octavia Hill Association, an association that has been at work here for ten years,—and in its truest sense is doing "Neighborhood Work," is to present a report. I think those of you who know about that association realize that its purpose is not to build model tenements, but to go to old neighborhoods and buy up or rent the tenements and collect the rents, and to improve the conditions of the houses and the tenants at the same time, and they are doing "Neighborhood Work" of the highest value.

Now the association has prepared a paper which will be presented by one of the members of the association. After the paper is read Mr. Harris will show us some pictures of housing conditions here in Philadelphia, on the screen.

I have the pleasure of introducing Mr. Harris who, represents the association.

Paper on Housing Conditions in Philadelphia. (Page 367.)

Mr. Harris then exhibited a number of lantern views, accompanying the pictures by explanatory remarks, of which a few were as follows:

A typical ground plan of a Philadelphia house. You see the front room and the private entry back to the staircase; dining room, living room, they are together, and the kitchen in the back. These houses have furnaces in the cellar; they have a bath room that has a window in it, and they rent for about $15 a month. That is a typical Philadelphia plan. Every room has outside light.

A group of houses about fifteen minutes from the City Hall containing six rooms and a bath and renting for about $15 a month.

There is a court: That is one of the tenement houses that was built before the new law was passed, the law of 1895. Now you see what a terrible condition that is. I do not know if you can see clearly or not, but there is a tenement house reaching up five stories in the air and it opens out on this dark court.

A VOICE: — Are the better class of houses that rent for $15 owned by the building associations, or individuals?

MR. HARRIS: — They are gradually acquired by individuals, through the building associations.

This is a view of one of the largest of these tenement houses, built on the rear of the street, eighty windows on this court and twenty-five families living in it.

(VOICE IN DARKNESS): — One other question, it is said that, while the population of London is about seven millions and of Philadelphia about one million and one-half, there are more houses in the City of Philadelphia than there are in the city of London, is there any verification of that statement?

MR. HARRIS: — I have not a verification, but I believe it is correct.

MR. HARRIS (continuing explanation of pictures): — There is a model tenement. That was built under the direction of the Octavia Hill Association by one of its Directors. That is not typical, however, of Philadelphia at all. It was a task that was quite expensive, although it is paying a good rate of interest on the investment. We do not consider that it is a typical piece of Philadelphia building work.

(VOICE IN DARKNESS): —Was that built under the Law of 1895?

MR. HARRIS: — Yes, sir.

(VOICE): — And complied with all the requirements?

MR. HARRIS: — Yes, sir.

There is a map of the congested district of Philadelphia. You will see a great many types; little houses with little yards, and some larger houses with little yards, and the courts run in through streets and in and around so there is no through draft of air down the street.

There is a narrow dark alley. I think few Philadelphians would believe that this is a picture taken in Philadelphia. All back houses. High wall, no front, five or seven tenements close together in that area. Alley four feet five inches wide. It does not run through. That is the end of it.

That is the way they get in and you see the hydrant down there. That is where they get the water supply for the families. They have only got that one hydrant and you can imagine the condition. This is the court yard, not the back yard and the court shown in the side. There are no fences or conveniences so all the houses may use the one hydrant.

There is a group of the court of eight houses, one hydrant

for all of these people gathered out there. Most of the people living here are Italians. It is interesting to notice these little gardens that they have out of the windows. Even in the midst of this squalid condition, they try to brighten things up, and really take an interest in their surroundings which is not at all gauged by the amount of flower beds there. It is really picturesque; it looks like a bit of the old country.

There is another one of these courts very much congested.

VOICE: — What proportion of these people you have shown there are Americans?

MR. HARRIS: — I think a very very small portion indeed. There are very few of these people in Philadelphia I think that are native Americans.

That is a court in the Jewish quarter. A large tenement on the street. In the top floor is a sweat shop. Nine houses in the rear. One hydrant for all. The archway forming the entrance of the court is clearly seen.

VOICE: — Do you exclude the negroes when you say there are few native born Americans?

MR. HARRIS: — I stand corrected in that respect. There are a good many negroes down there. I was thinking of the people whose pictures we have been seeing, and they are all white people.

This is a court bought and improved by the Octavia Hill Association. One house was torn down to increase the size of the yard in the centre of the row.

That closes our exhibition of pictures that we have to-night. We tried to develop this exhibition in such a way that you would see the two conditions.

We have here in Philadelphia a condition that is very fine where we have these six-room, small, two-story houses, but we have also a district, — and it is not a small district, in which the Octavia Hill Association is trying to improve the conditions, so that the people who have to live there may have better and more healthy houses.

THE CHAIRMAN: — Doctor VanGasken, who is a member of the committee, has made an investigation of houses and the conditions of this district in Philadelphia and will open the discussion on the Octavia Hill paper.

DR. FRANCES C. VANGASKEN, M. D.: — Some years ago, I made a call in the lower section of the city at a house from which was reported a case of pulmonary tuberculosis. At that time I was an inspector of the Board of Health. When I rang the bell and asked for the lady of the house she answered. I said who I was and where I came from. She said, "The Board of Health ain't got no right to send any doctor here."

"Well," I said, "why not; haven't you had a death here recently?"

"Yes," she said, "but he didn't die of any disease."

And so I think tonight that it is not the doctor that is wanted here by the Octavia Hill Association, nor yet a doctor to open the discussion. However, as they would have it so, I consented.

Now I believe that I was asked to talk about overcrowding and the effect of overcrowding upon the population.

Of the pictures that were shown you will remember, there were two types. Of course, I do not refer to the ideal Philadelphia two-story houses, which it is well for you all to have if you have the space. My remarks will be entirely about the two-story or three-story houses that have been changed, from dwelling places of individual families, into dwelling places for many families.

When I came to look up some figures I found that they were not so very satisfactory. I chose the Third Ward, which is in the centre of the crowded section of the city and represents the Italian quarter and took most of my figures from it. In that Third Ward there are twenty-four thousand six hundred and ninety-three people. That ward has nearly the highest death rate in the city.

Now that is not a very great population. It certainly is not from the New York standpoint, but when you consider that of these houses probably not half a dozen are over three stories high, the room crowding must be something to think about. And it is the room crowding that is responsible for the raised death rate. I think that that will not be disputed.

I had a very vivid picture in mind of a crowded room. Immediately after my appointment to the Board of Health, I was given a case to look up. The health officer said, "Now, doctor, you are a woman, and you are the only woman that has been appointed here and I want you to do this at your best. It is a case of smallpox reported from the Italian district." In my desire to do the very best I could, I had to make two excursions down there.

The detailed description amounted to nothing. I asked for the name of the individual. It was an anonymous report and reported as smallpox. When I made the visit I asked the man's name and they looked around in that Italian way, "No, they didn't know anybody here. No."

Well, I had my eyes pretty well opened, and saw the man who had what I thought I was after, he had an eruption on his face. I started towards him and he out the back door and I after him. I made a chase after him through these courts and a pretty lively one, too, but I did not catch the man, and I gave up the struggle. I said to the officer, "You get that man who lives in that house, when he comes home at night and send me word."

About midnight I got a message from the station house and went around with the officer. He knocked on the door and we

went upstairs in one of these band-box tenements, up and up to the third floor winding round. We had the policeman's lantern and a very little light in the rest of the house. I did not observe the rooms through which we went, but the room that contained the man had in it three beds. These three beds were double beds, one occupied the front wall, one headed to the side wall and the third to the back and there was room for me to wind in and out to search for that man. In the bed in which he was there was another man, and in the third bed a man and his wife and two children.

Now that was some years ago, more than ten, but I think the conditions have not changed, so when I speak of it, I know there is room crowding. I am sure there is.

Now the effect of overcrowding shows itself in the increased mortality, the increased morbidity, the increase of the contagious disease rate, zymotic diseases, increase in the birth rate, increase of infant mortality, and then finally increase in the unsanitary condition of the neighborhood.

In increased mortality, this Third ward, I should say is almost the banner ward. It represents the Italian district, and the death rate, as we collect it in our health statistics, is one in forty-two. For each forty-two people living in that ward one person dies a year. That is exceeded by the rate in the Seventh Ward, which is one in thirty-six, and again by the West Philadelphia Ward, which is one in fifteen. But the Seventh Ward is the colored quarter and contains a very large hospital, the Pennsylvania Hospital. In the West Philadelphia Ward that has the highest death rate there is the City Hospital.

Now strange as it may be, the deaths that occur in these hospitals are not referred to the homes from which they were taken. If they were, I am sure this crowded Third Ward would lead.

The death rate for the whole city was eighteen and a little over per thousand. Changing these figures around makes the death rate in the Third Ward twenty-four per thousand, and the ward wherein the Pennsylvania Hospital is twenty-six per thousand. I do not know how that compares with other cities. I do know the London death rate, in 1902, was seventeen and a little over per thousand.

Now the increased morbidity. To prove that you have only to look at the hospitals. The hospitals! Why are they? Why do we have them? We have them partly because the people are crowded so together. The hospitals are increasing to take care of these people who cannot be taken care of in their homes.

One Italian woman said to me: "Doctor, all of my money goes to the doctor, the priest and the undertaker," as if she thought that was the natural sequence: call the doctor in, the others were bound to follow.

The zymotic death rate, includes tuberculosis, diphtheria

and scarlet fever. If shown by a chart with ink spots or pins of different colors, where these spots are thickest there is the crowded part of the town. That is true everywhere.

If any one of you saw the tuberculosis map prepared by the Phipps Institute at our recent exhibition, you will remember that down in that part of the city, the thing was literally peppered with pins representing tuberculosis. The Third Ward again is the banner ward when it comes to smallpox.

Now about the increased birth rate. I was rather surprised to look up the figures of the birth rate in this ward. One reason for the increased birth rate is, that in these crowded sections, the usual marriage age occurs early. Other things raise the birth rate also. In this city the Third Ward had one-twenty-eighth of the births and one-fifty-seventh of the population.

The next thing: Infant mortality. Sixteen per cent. of the children in Philadelphia died in the year (1904). Ten per cent. is allowable. From these figures, 32,000 infants that were born and 5,000 that died, I could not fix their deaths in the places where I expected, but I am pretty sure that a large proportion of them belonged there.

Now I do not think overcrowding is the only cause of infant mortality. There are a good many others. It is bad food, neglect, ill nourishment, weakness, all are factors.

Dr. Devine says in his presidential address: "The most profitable task of modern philanthropy is to find this other party and to deal by radical methods with him." Now what is the other party to these bad conditions here in the crowded sections of this city and of any city. I am reminded of just a little story that I heard some years ago; the Republicans had a split or a something and they put up a separate ticket. There were three tickets in the field; the Democratic, the Fusion and another. You will remember that that ticket was called the "Combine." The coachman of one of my friends voted, and the lady said, "Now for whom did you vote?" He said, "I don't remember; I think his name was Mr. Combine."

So I think that this other party is a combine of three things: One, carelessness on the part of the individual, in the way he regards his duty to his neighbor;

The second: Insufficient health laws and failure to enforce those that exist; and the

Third: Individual greed which is represented in the slum landlord. The two former make it possible for the third to prey on its victims, the slum tenants.

Dr. Maurice Fishberg: — I would like to ask one or two questions of the last speaker about the birth rate. May we not explain the excessive birth rate in the congested district, by the fact that the population there is foreign, not native? It is a well

known fact that the foreign population have larger families than the native population.

I am acquainted with conditions in New York and I know the mortality there in the immigrant district is smaller than the mortality in the native district. From the figures given by the speaker here I believe that the Third Ward was one in forty-two which roughly means twenty-four per thousand of population, while in the Seventh Ward, which is partly negro population and partly American the mortality is one to thirty-six or twenty-eight per thousand, which is much larger than in the Italian district. Now I would like to know if it is not so all over the city, that in the immigrant districts just as in New York the figures are smaller than in the other parts of the city.

DR. FRANCES VANGASKEN: — I think I said that the ward that represented the twenty-eight per thousand, or one in thirty-six, has the Pennsylvania Hospital in it and these deaths are not charged to the ward the patients came from. It is difficult to give exact figures for that ward. Of course, the tuberculosis rate is very high with colored people.

REV. C. E. ADAMSON: — I have been very much interested with these remarks of Dr. VanGasken, for I live in the Third Ward. It is a remarkable ward, remarkable politically, remarkable from almost every standpoint and it is remarkable from those facts that have been brought before us.

In considering this question of overcrowding there is one factor that Dr. VanGasken did not bring out and it ought to be considered in looking at the question.

It is not simply bad laws. It is not simply the non-enforcement of good laws. It is not simply the greed of the landlord, but it is the greed and the parsimony of the persons who live in these houses. These people can afford to live in better houses. They make money. Everybody works in the family. In my neighborhood there is one family that has a house of three rooms. The lower floor is used for selling small articles during the week, and I have a strong suspicion of what they sell on Sunday. The third floor is rented to one boarder and the second floor, which consists of one room, is occupied by the family of five. These people are laying by money. From $20,000 to $30,000 every week goes out from the Italian quarter, from our thirty or forty local banks, into the larger banks. They are buying houses and they very rarely lose a house after they place a mortgage on it. They are not poor people, but it is impossible to save people from themselves. They are making money but they are saving money, and I think, in all candor, that is the fourth factor that we ought to bring into this question, and Dr. Van Gasken, if you lived in the ward you would appreciate what I have said.

THE CHAIRMAN: — I think we will now pass very naturally

from overcrowding to the Distribution of Over-Population and Professor Loeb, of the New York University, will address us on that subject.

Prof. Morris Loeb read a paper on The Distribution of Population. (Page 382.)

Further discussion was postponed until the morning session.

A meeting of the probation officers under direction of the Standing Committee on Children was called to order at 9:30 A. M. on Wednesday, May 16, by Chairman Hart of the latter committee.

Prof. Henry W. Thurston, chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court, Chicago, was introduced as the presiding officer of the Section. Prof. Thurston announced that the program would take the shape of a Round Table discussion upon the actual method and results of personal probation effort, as distinguished from that of initial investigation. The five topics to form the basis of various five minute talks were, as selected: "Visits to Court by the Probationer," "Visitation of Children in their Homes by the Probation Officers," "Club Work for Boys and Girls under Charge of the Probation Officers," "The Volunteer Probation Officers," "Preventive Work of the Probation Officers."

Miss Ida L. Gregory, of Denver, Colo., spoke briefly concerning methods in Judge Lindsey's Court from the time the complaint reaches the officer. Miss Gregory emphasized particularly the fact that in Denver the law allows the making of complaint against parents if by means of their conduct or neglect they may have been found contributory toward the delinquency of any child. It has been found possible to avoid actual legal procedure in many cases. On an average about ninety cases per month are settled out of Court. Truant cases are very seldom taken to Court. "Backsliders" among the children are often given another trial, many times over. In certain necessary instances children may become wards of the state, though not enduring the stigma of Court commitment, thereby effectually preventing annoying claims of unworthy parents. The newspapers of Denver have agreed not to publish names of children who may have been arrested, or otherwise taken to the Juvenile Court.

Miss Gregory suggested that throughout the country upon the proper establishment of Juvenile Court and probation systems,

the various penal institutions be transformed into industrial schools. Emphatically she does not believe in night clubs for girls.

Mrs. Evelyn A. Parks, connected with the Juvenile Court of Chicago, spoke briefly upon the visitation of children in their homes by the probation officer. She found it not difficult to gain a foothold in such homes, because the parents of children about to be brought before the Court were usually distressed and they welcomed the visit to the home by the probation officer. Her plea was for the recognition of the finer sensibilities in all such work. She asked that every officer pause and think, how would I feel, were this my boy. If this were the thought, the method of procedure, of many probation officers would be greatly modified.

Having received the child upon probation, his or her life should be made as much as possible like that of an average normal boy or girl. Further, Mrs. Parks stated it to be her belief, that children are permitted to drift too far along the downward path before anything definite is done toward their reclamation.

The subject of Club Work for Boys and Girls was presented by Mr. Stephen P. Morris, of Omaha, Neb. Mr. Morris prefaced his remarks with the statement, "We have a happy family in Omaha." He then spoke of the spirit of hearty co-operation on the part of other local societies in the work of the Juvenile Court and of the Probation officers. He spoke somewhat at length of the club work established, prior to that of the Children's Court by Mr. Bernstein, and dwelt at length upon the preventive phases of such work. Boys have been taught that crap-shooting and cigarette smoking are not proper steps towards the fulfillment of an ambition to become a worthy business man. Incidentally, public sentiment has been educated not to buy newspapers from a boy without a badge, which is furnished by the club. The Young Men's Christian Association has loaned the club its physical director. The cigarette question has been so vigorously pushed that not more than three or four boys who are members of the club now use cigarettes. Expulsion from the club is an inevitable consequence of such use. A penny-in-the-slot machine for daily savings of the boys has been in use. A kitchen department furnishes meals for boys practically at cost.

The subject of the Volunteer Probation Worker was discussed by Mr. Robertson, of Indianapolis, Indiana, himself a

volunteer, who dwelt at length upon constructive work. There are in Indianapolis 305 volunteer probation officers, men and women. These are, variously, of Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant faith. There are also probation officers of the colored race. The great majority of the men are connected with business firms. Each volunteer officer, working under the direction of a paid probation officer, is given from one to three children. The volunteers are carefully selected, and are usually of a high order of efficiency. Parents have been found to be willing to co-operate. These volunteer officers meet regularly in a monthly conference. In reply to a question Mr. Robertson stated that in the experience of his city the interest of the volunteer does not flag. On the contrary, it usually increases after a more or less lengthy period in the work.

Preventive Work of Probation Workers was treated by Mr. Benjamin C. Marsh, of the Society for the Protection of Children, of Philadelphia. Mr. Marsh stated that he would not attempt to bring out anything new, simply to summarize the suggestions made at the various meetings of this session of the Conference. As a cardinal principle Mr. Marsh felt that the state must absolutely prohibit all marriages between the physically, mentally, and morally unfit, so that there should not be as much food for perennial discussion in the matter of dependent and delinquent children.

In the second place there should be a *nightly* inspection of tenements. In connection with such inspection the probation officers and officers of the various societies to protect children, should have more authority by which to enforce existing law.

Third, there must be a rehabilitation of our public school system. School curricula should be made more practical; children must be given things which appeal to them. There is great need for the extension of manual training in our schools. The school building should be made a recreation centre not alone for the children, but for the parents of the neighborhood.

Fourth, the State must prevent absolutely all forms of child labor. The street trading of minors must be carefully regulated. The community must see to it that no child be allowed to grow up in a haphazard manner. Every school teacher and physician should make full report to the local Board of Health, in case of wrongful conditions that become known. Mr. Marsh spoke of

the furnished room evil. There are 30,000 such furnished rooms in his home city.

Again, Mr. Marsh stated, we must get away from our present farcical system of dealing with the adult delinquents. We must not send such delinquents into another district, and allow the child to continue in his parents' footsteps.

Mr. Copp, of Washington, D. C., spoke of private "heart-to-heart" talks as being of great value. The child must know that the probation officer is above all his real friend. All cases in the Juvenile Court should be heard separately, and no boy should be placed again in a room, with boys awaiting Court action. Speaking on the topic of Visits by the Probation Officer to Children, Mr. Copp thought that with care and effort, the parents could be made better to understand their full responsibility, and the entire standard of a home could be raised. Under the topic of Preventive Work, Mr. Copp pleaded for additional playgrounds. After all, the question of preventive work reverts to the parent. There should be more largely on the part of parents a scientific study of pre-natal influences upon children. The subject of morals should receive greater attention in our public schools.

Miss Behrhorst, of Pittsburg, stated that one of her greatest problems was to make parents realize their responsibility. In Pittsburg the law helps by providing a levy upon the parents of $2.00 a week for the support of any committed child. The next problem was with truants, there being no truant school in Pittsburg.

Mr. Butler, of Jersey City, N. J., spoke of the problem of securing employment for boys over 16 years of age. He urged co-operation on the part of employers for these boys.

Mrs. Heller, of Omaha, Neb., spoke of the great assistance which such help on the part of employers, has been to the probation officers of Omaha. She cited an instance where the employers agreed not to smoke in office hours, owing to the influence upon the boys. She also spoke of a newspaper office where profanity became unknown for the same reason.

Mrs. Trumbull, of Portland, Ore., strongly opposed the giving of material aid by probation officers, such as shoes, hats, wraps, etc., stating that reform which is purchased, does not last. She spoke also of the great necessity regarding manner of one's own dress in visiting the homes of probationers. One should not

wear superfluous jewelry nor silk dress. An amusing story gave point to her appeal. There should be a great depth of patience and a scientific study of child nature on the part of probation officers. Attention should be given to physical defects, such as adenoids, etc.

Mrs. Wright, of Denver, Colo., spoke of the fact that employers in Denver seem really to prefer Judge Lindsey's boys.

Mr. Thurston, presiding officer, spoke of the difficulty experienced often through inability to know during each of the twenty-four hours of the day what is in the life of boys under probation. The sex problem of boys and girls of 10 to 15 years of age was a most important one. He pleaded for greater enlightenment on the part of the children's parents and of the whole community upon this subject.

Meeting adjourned at 10:30 after a brief address by Mr. Hart.

TENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Wednesday, May 16, 1906, *at* 10:30 *A. M.*

The Conference was called to order by President pro tem. deForest.

AFTER PRAYER BY REV. E. W. RICE.

Joseph Lee, Vice-President Massachusetts Civic League, and Chairman of the meeting, read the report of the Committee on Immigration. (Page 279.)

Prof. L. C. Marshall, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, read a paper on "Race Effects of Immigration." (Page 314, with charts as appendix G, page 626.)

Hon. William Williams, former Commissioner of Immigration of New York, read a paper on "Certain Features of Immigration, Together with Further Possible Restrictions." (Page 285.)

Mr. Maurice Fishberg, New York, read a paper on "Ethnic Factors in Immigration." (Page 304.)

MR. JOHN M. GLENN, (Maryland): — I have to confess to having very little information on immigration. I do not feel I have learned a great deal to-day. I have a great deal to think about, but not many facts to base conclusions upon. There are two or three facts in the history of Baltimore, which I think are worth while presenting, as showing the value of the im-

migration of the so-called inferior races. A few years ago we had in Baltimore a tornado which tore a certain portion of the town pretty much to pieces, put people out of their homes and made trouble in a particular way, more almost than the great fire did. It was in a part of the town inhabited by Bohemians. I want to speak of the fine spirit in which the Bohemians themselves took hold and relieved the local committee. They were nearly all people who had been born in Europe, but nobody could have behaved better than they did. Among them also were some Poles who were really very poor. They showed the same kind of spirit, and, while they couldn't do much for other people, they took up their own burdens when they were shown how to do it.

Another instance was in the great fire that took place two years ago in Baltimore. A large number of people who suffered were Italians. They very promptly, almost as soon as the general relief committee had been formed, formed a relief committee themselves and took up the Italian cases. They said to the relief committee, "We will take care of our own cases and you need not give us money out of the public funds or contributions for our cases, for we will take care of them ourselves." As a matter of fact they were not able to do that ultimately, but they did their best. The committee was formed of men of different classes. There was one man there, the boss of an Italian colony, at the head of it. Those people worked in the most intelligent way in the administration of their relief, and considering that they were none of them trained charity workers, the results so far as their people were concerned were good.

Another instance is of a club of young Russian-Jewish girls, born and educated in this country but pretty near to being original foreigners. These girls have formed what they call the Young Hebrew Ladies' Benevolent Association. They were girls that came out of factories and sweatshops, from twenty-five to fifty in the club. It has grown by degrees, and the spirit of these girls is one of the finest things I have ever seen. They have an intense desire to do what they can for somebody else and an intense desire to learn how. They are as keen to learn and as keen to find out what is the best method as any member of this Conference. I think those are three very remarkable examples of what the immigration of the Russians, the Italians and the Bohemians have meant to this country.

I cannot help feeling that every one of these people who have come over here has conferred a benefit upon this country. I cannot help thinking that based on these and similar facts we ought to consider that the presumption is against restriction, unless it is pretty clear that the people ought to be kept out as dangerous to this country. Every one will agree as to the paupers, so-called, and to the feeble-minded and the criminal. This

class there is little question about. We need to urge restrictions as to them, but as to the main classes we want to go slow before we put restrictions on their admission.

MRS. LOUISE JURIST, (Phila.): — I want to say something for the foreign element in our schools. I am specially interested in the schools, and everywhere I visit I hear the greatest commendation as regards the industry, the ambition and the energy of our children and the co-operation of their parents who are not masters of the English language, but understand sufficient to have a desire for the improvement that comes with education. The foreign parents are receiving education in sympathy with their children. I want to put in a plea for the foreigner because we are considering the future and not the present, and we are considering the children who are to make the future of this country.

MISS BALCH: — I think our opinions diverge much more widely on particular aspects in discussing the relative advantages and disadvantages of the different races, than on practical points. One of the very admirable points brought out by Commissioner Williams, who did such service to the country in his administration in New York, seems to me a thing on which all lines of opinion may well converge, and that is the selection, the protection, and in some degree the restriction, through very much more stringent regulation of steamship transportation. These people start for America not knowing what it means, going through a demoralizing process all the way. They have less privacy than they have ever enjoyed and they have more discomfort, dirt and demoralization than they are used to. This is their first acquaintance with what America means. This is a terrible deterrent in proportion precisely as they are sensitive, cleanly and delicate in their feelings. What I am in favor of is, practically, raising the steerage passage to second class and second class to cabin. That is low enough and the persons who cannot pay for that need not come. As a matter of fact the greater part will come. The effect I think would be good rather than bad. It would be a tax on immigration but a tax of which the immigrant gets the full benefit himself. It would have a tendency for steamship companies to bid for immigration. As it is now when a stream of immigration is started the companies can rest on their oars. I would raise third class passage to about the level of second class, and have a representative of the U. S. government immigration service on board of every vessel bringing more than one hundred passengers. I would have a matron, and I would have the U. S. official see that the steward did not shut the water off so as to increase his profits in selling drinks on the voyage. Certainly a woman aboard would have a far better opportunity than any matron at this end can have to know the character of the women coming and to shut off the most undesir-

able stream of immigration that can come to us, the immoral women. These agents should be sent by the government and the expenses paid by the company. They should not be allowed to remain long on one vessel, but be shifted all the time from ship to ship, on different voyages and different lines so that they would not get too friendly with a given set of ship's officials. That seems to me a program that is simple and practical and useful, and I wish very much public opinion might converge upon that one point at least.

Wednesday Afternoon.

The annual meeting of the American Federation of Day Nurseries was held at 3 P. M. A full report of the meeting will be published by the federation. The following brief report deserves a place in this volume.

Mrs. Arthur M. Dodge, of New York, president of the federation, presided. In opening, Mrs. Dodge outlined the tasks which the federation faces.

"The federation from its inception has been hampered by the fact that in endeavoring to establish a standard it must have the co-operation and good will of hundreds of nurseries established independently, having had no common source of inspiration, with diverse methods and ideals. The fundamental idea is the same in all — the caring for young children whose mothers must work, but each nursery had been working out the problems of its own locality, unable to take advantage of the experience of others, until ten years ago, when the federation established an office as a common centre from which information could be obtained.

"There is no charitable institution whose administration is more affected by the varying social, economic and industrial life of the community in which it is established. These conditions as they exist in the large cities of the Middle West and of the East are quite different from those of the South, the Pacific coast and some parts of New England.

"The day nursery is acknowledged to be the earliest educational influence available for the children it seeks to help. Taking the baby of ten days, he is prepared through carefully nurtured infancy and through kindergarten age to enter the public school, better equipped to meet its requirements than most pupils who enter the lower grades. The expansion of this work from the primary idea of feeding and housing babies to its present scope, which includes kindergartens, educational work for mothers, industrial classes for older children, summer outings and family visiting, touches the interests of both philanthropic and

educational organizations. Consequently there has been in the past two years larger recognition of the educational value of the work and a much fuller co-operation with a variety of other societies working through many channels towards the same end, the uplifting of the child and the mother.

"A few facts will indicate the growth of day nurseries in the past ten years. Most of them have been started independently through the urgent needs in cities or towns, which demanded relief. During the past two years, however, an increasing number of workers have applied to the office for advice and information. Literature has been supplied and there is increasing evidence of appreciation of the efforts made to help establish nurseries with the best methods.

"At the time of the first conference, held in 1892, there were only ninety nurseries reported throughout the country. In 1897 there were upon our list 204. In 1906 the number had increased to 295. The increase has been greatest in the large cities. New York has 60, Chicago 18, Boston 15 and Philadelphia 16, Cleveland 6, St. Louis 5, and until it was devastated in the recent awful calamity, San Francisco had 5.

"There is an increasing demand for nurseries all through the South, almost every small city in New England has one, and in the Middle and Far West a day nursery is organized just as soon as industrial conditions show the need of one."

Miss Laliah B. Pingree, of Boston, was the next speaker on "Neighborhood Work in Connection with Day Nurseries." She brought out some important questions which the nursery boards should be able to answer as to the care of the children whose mothers go to work from 7 A. *m.* to 6 P. M., or those whose hours are from 4 to 8 in the morning and 5 to 9 at night. Miss Pingree showed the importance of first of all studying the conditions of the neighborhood. In Boston they have found that a trained investigator is necessary, to report to a committee of three, who have the power of admitting a child, but who may refer a difficult case to a general committee meeting twice a month, and consisting of a representative of the Associated Charities, the Children's Mission, the S. P. C. C. and the Day Nursery Association. Out of the needs of the older children not yet ready for work have grown clubs and classes in sewing, cooking and raffia work.

A paper by Mrs. E. C. Dudley, of Chicago, read by Mrs. Dodge, opened with these questions to matrons of day nurseries:

First. Do you find that a constant connection with a day nursery increases and strengthens a mother's love?

Second. Does it increase cleanliness and care in the home?

Third. Does it increase in the mother an added respect and interest in other people?

Fourth. Does the mother recommend the day nurseries to other mothers?

Almost all the matrons answered in the affirmative to all questions.

S. C. Kingsley, of Chicago, and Mrs. R. P. Bradford, of the Lighthouse Settlement of Philadelphia, were among those who took part in the discussion.

ELEVENTH GENERAL SESSION.

Wednesday Evening, May 16, 1906.

The meeting was called to order at 8 P. M., Mr. deForest presiding.

Prayer was offered by the Rev. Henry Berkowitz.

Mr. DeForest introduced Charles R. Henderson, Professor of Ecclesiastical Sociology in the University of Chicago, as Chairman of the Committee on Workingmen's Insurance.

Mr. Henderson presented the final report of the Special Committee on Workingmen's Insurance and old Age Pensions (Page 452), and presided as chairman of the meeting thereafter.

THE CHAIRMAN:—It was our confident expectation to have with us F. A. Vanderlip, President of the National City Bank of New York, who in his remarks in the North American Review, has attracted the attention of the business world as well as the philanthropic world to this great subject; he is unable to be present with us. I shall, according to the rules of the Conference, not read his report, but will give a summary after a few minutes.

Rt. Rev. Samuel Fallows, of Chicago, was introduced and spoke as follows:

The principle of life insurance is just as important in the sociological world as is the principle of gravitation in the material world. No tainted reputation of any men in the insurance world, will touch the vital principle of life insurance, and therefore I hope that no one who is insured will allow his policy to lapse or will have any feeling of disfavor towards insurance itself. We are told that revolutions do not go backward. They do not and evolution does not go backward. Those of you who were

here to listen to the wonderful unfolding of the principle of the probation system, must have been struck with this fact of evolution, beginning in an indeterminate way, in the care of those who once had been unfortunate either as dependents or delinquents, the principle growing and growing and growing until now we are to have a probation system in connection with our judiciary, that shall take care of every child that comes within its scope. I am looking forward to the time when the evolution of this principle will still widen and deepen, and every man, coming forth from our penitentiaries and state's prisons and reformatories, shall be under the benign influence of the same probation system. Now we are not going backward in this matter of insurance for the workingman; it is a subject that is going to forge continually forward. Old age, how we dread it; poets have written upon it; pagan writers have given us classics upon the subject. Metschnikoff, the great French writer of Russian ancestry, belonging to the Pasteur Institute, has just written a wonderful book on the Nature of Man, and he claims that our age should be one hundred and twenty years, the age laid down in the early Scriptures, and not three score years and ten or even four score years. He talks learnedly about the microphages and the macrophages and the things which are the enemies of the human system and accelerate its dissolution.

One of the best things to prolong life and to give joy and serenity and happiness to an increasing old age, is to have an adequate financial provision for all its wants and for all its responsibilities, and the workingmen's insurance idea is one of the most valuable means of securing this result. I am in hearty accord with the principles laid down in the report and in the paper. I want to close with just emphasizing one or two things: First, we are learning that railroad corporations have souls and to them must be given great credit for being pioneers in the direction which has been indicated in the report. We have also learned this fact, that true philanthropy is true righteousness, that true charity is simply justice, and corporations, railroad corporations and private corporations are learning the truth that it is of the highest importance to take care of their men, of their health and to devise ways to give them the means of sustenance when the working age is past. I hope and pray that the leaven which is found now in American society may leaven the whole loaf of our corporate humanity and every man who has to work for a living may be provided for, as those days of deprivation from labor shall come to him, and he may close his years in peace and in thankfulness to God, the Giver of all good and to his fellow men, who have assisted him in thus living a peaceful life in his declining years.

Mr. Vanderlip's paper on "Insurance from the Employer's Standpoint" was then read in part. (Page 457.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — Mr. Mack, Sr., was to speak here this evening, but pressing duties called him away. He commissioned me to say to you, however, two or three things. He says, as a business man, this is not simply to be regarded from an individual standpoint, not from the standpoint even of the corporation or firm, but the time is ripe when business men — the best type of business men in the country, are coming to see that it is a social necessity, that it is a commonwealth and a national duty, and if we have not yet found a way to express our conviction, we must make experiments and move forward, cautiously but earnestly until we have found the way. He insists upon the point that the social conscience, guided by the social intelligence, must take up this problem as one of immediate pressing importance, one that as a social duty we can no longer set aside. He speaks too as a charity worker, a man of liberal hand and heart who sees that there are a great many persons who are not to be cast upon charity but who ought to be supported by the business in which they spent their lives. This is, in substance, the testimony of Mr. Mack, Sr. I shall call upon my colleague whom this Conference has recognized by electing him President of our Conference for the coming year, one of the highest honors that we can have, I take it. He will speak upon the national and local governmental pensions.

Mr. A. W. Butler then read a paper on Governmental and Municipal Pensions. (Page 470.)

THE CHAIRMAN: — I shall next introduce the last speaker upon the regular program to-night, my colleague, Professor Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University, Ithaca, who will speak upon certain other aspects, certain fundamental, economic principles relating to our subject.

Professor Fetter then read a paper on "The Need of Industrial Insurance." (Page 464.)

Professor Henderson then closed the discussion as follows:

MR. HENDERSON: — At the close of a long week's session, you have listened with interest to this discussion of the report that as a Committee, we have been able to make to you. We believe that this is but the dawn of a new movement in our country and our philanthropic work. There is a tendency among us, as charity workers, to distinguish carefully between delinquents, or criminals, on one side, and those who are proper subjects of care as dependents on the other. We hand over to the police the wife deserter, the vagrant, the vagabond, or so-called criminal. We say these do not belong to the charity worker. We may

follow these persons still into the prison, we may follow them still as discharged prisoners, we may show them benevolent care under the probation system. As we distinguish carefully between the delinquent and the dependent, we are next going to see that we must make a new distinction, that philanthropy is carrying a burden which does not belong to it, and at tremendous cost, and that is the burden of industry. That industry itself is parasitic, that industry itself is a pauper, which does not pay all the expenses that belong to it. Among those expenses are worn-out machinery and worn-out men. We arrange for the worn-out machinery; we are beginning to see that the industry must also carry the men who have enriched the owners and enriched society at the same time. This is our appeal to you tonight. We ask you to go out into the different states of our Union which need this legislation and interest your Congressmen. We ask you to help think out this problem for those who need our help, our thought and our voice. Sometimes it is said to us by men whom we dare not ignore, "There is no law for it; it is contrary to a long series of decisions of the courts, to the plain wording of the Constitution." We have lived to see the time change from the moment when it was treason to argue against slavery. I hope to live long enough to see the time come when by virtue of the best article perhaps in the Constitution, that one providing for its amendment, we shall find a way, where there is a will, to do for the common human good. What are lawyers for, what is our eminent President for, but to find a way to do right; right first, justice first. When nothing else can be done, it comes to charity, it comes to benevolence to "take up the broken fragments that nothing may be lost." But long before that a thousand things ought to be done; a thousand things can be done by voluntary effort. If that shall not be successful, as I am frank to say, from my thought and study of the question it must be unsuccessful in the majority of cases, then must we appeal as law lovers, as lovers of the Constitution, as lovers of statutes, to the noble legal profession, the servant of change in the right direction as well as of a wise conservatism, to find a legal, righteous way of doing the thing. Public conscience declines to be unrighteous, the civilized world has pronounced its judgment upon the subject. We are making, in the name of the world's enlightenment, a demand upon the constituted authorities of our country to change the laws that are iniquitous, that are not adapted to modern economic conditions that grind up men, body and soul, to make profits.

I have spoken the strong language of conviction; I have spoken it because I would not be true to myself at the conclusion of these four years of study of this subject, if I did not do more than simply present certain considerations, if I did not put into it something of that personal conviction which I believe,

though it is not much thought of now, will be, within the next decade, shared by every member of the Conference and by a majority of the members of our nation.

Thanking you for your patient hearing of this report, hoping that it is but the beginning of a prolonged study of a great and difficult subject, though it will be merely a little factor in the great stream of progress, we who have studied it speak our results in good conscience and in good faith. We have endeavored to study conscientiously; perhaps we have made a mistake, perhaps a fundamental mistake, though I do not believe we have. We come to you with a united voice upon certain fundamental principles, which must work themselves out by experiment, according to the genius of our institutions and according to the sentiments which are historic with us. And now, to our honored President I commit again the charge of this meeting, with the expression again of the hope that, when we meet next year, there will be more of you, as I believe there will be, to share the convictions of your Committee.

Mr. deForest, President pro tem., then resumed the chair.

THE CHAIRMAN: — We come back now somewhat reluctantly to the prosaic business of the Conference for a brief moment; there is now an opportunity for any business which shall properly come before us. The Committee on Resolutions presents its final report.

The Committee on Resolutions unanimously report the following and move their adoption. First, a resolution introduced by request of the National Conference of Jewish Charities:

"*Resolved,* That the National Conference of Jewish Charities request the National Conference of Charities and Correction to recommend uniform legislation for all States and Territories, *providing that*

When children are committed to public institutions the parents shall be compelled to contribute, to the extent of their ability, toward the maintenance of such children."

The above resolution was adopted at meeting held Tuesday, May 8th, 1906, by the National Conference of Jewish Charities. SOLOMON LOWENSTEIN, *Sec'y.*

Resolved, That the above resolution be adopted by the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Second: A resolution offered by Mr. Thos. D. Osborne, of Louisville, Ky., as follows:

Resolved, That the Secretary be, and is hereby, directed to prepare and print, in an appropriate place, in the annual proceed-

ings, an historical list of the times and places of the annual meetings, also a roll of the general officers for each year.*

Third: An unsigned resolution offered by a member as follows:

WHEREAS, The songs of great social movements unify and inspire comrades and sustain them in hours of difficulty;

Resolved, That the President of the Conference be authorized and requested to appoint a Committee of three members to investigate the subject of the best æsthetic expression of the spirit and aims of this Conference and report recommendations to the next annual meeting.

And the following resolutions of thanks:

The members of the 33rd National Conference of Charities and Correction having held one of the most successful and delightful meetings in its history, tender to the people of Philadelphia our hearty thanks and appreciation for their charming hospitality. Our gratitude is due to the Mayor of the city for his cordial interest and backing, to the members of the local committee for their invaluable aid in making the objects of the Conference more widely known, in adding to its membership, in providing such comfortable and thorough arrangements for its accommodation and conduct, and for the exquisite and refreshing floral decorations of Horticultural Hall; and especially do we thank Miss Mary E. Richmond, and Mr. George Vaux, Jr., for their indefatigable and genial watchfulness for the welfare of our members, and the Associate Collegiate Alumnae for their faithful and agreeable service at all times.

We also tender our appreciative thanks to the Chambers-Wylie Memorial Church, for the use of its excellent lecture room; to the Rector and congregation of Holy Trinity Church, for the use of their church for the Conference Sermon; to the managers and officers of the School for the Feeble-Minded at Elwyn, and the House of Refuge at Glen Mills, for courtesies extended; to the University of Pennsylvania, Haverford College, the Manufacturer's Club, the New Century Club, and the Civic Club for entertainments, which were greatly enjoyed.

We also express our thanks to the Associated Press for excellent summaries of our proceedings, and to those of the newspapers of Philadelphia which have done a like service to the Conference and the public.

To Charities and its staff are due our thanks for services rendered of exceptional value in the editing and publishing of an unusually good daily bulletin in co-operation with the local committee and the General Secretary of the Conference.

The resolutions suggested were all unanimously adopted.

* See Appendix E, p. 619.

Mr. George L. Sehon, of Louisville, Ky., Vice President of the Conference, was called on to introduce the President-elect.

Mr. Sehon: — I am very sorry indeed that I have been chosen to introduce Mr. Butler because I live very close to him and I feel that he has violated one or two rules of this organization and that I ought to tell something on him. You know the motto of this organization, if I understand it correctly, is to never miss an opportunity to tell all you know, and to even go further than that and never refuse an opportunity to tell all you don't know. Well, Mr. Butler has deceived us. I have found out recently that he is a scientist; I found out that he possesses a good deal more knowledge than we knew he possessed; and I feel if I expose him you won't blame me.

You see from the program of the evening that this gentleman knows a good deal about birds. It is told by his friends that he is the best posted man on ornithology in America, that he knows the habits of every bird, that he knows the character of nest that they build, that he knows the color of their eggs, and it is also said he can warble the notes, even from the tiny humming bird to the magnificent nightingale, and his friends say that he sometimes pines for the woods. They know that by the peculiar expressions that he unconsciously uses at times. For instance, some of them told me recently they heard him use such expressions as these, "What a lark we had" and again "She cut the pigeon wing" and "What a jay he is," conclusively showing that his heart and soul is responding to the call of the wild. There is something yet and I know you will deem this a serious thing. I have learned recently that this gentleman is not only a practical charity worker but that he is a humanitarian, and that he devotes his life to alleviate the wants of the poor and in seeing that delinquents and unfortunates, in the penal and eleemosynary institutions of his State, are better cared for. As Secretary of the State Board of Indiana, it is his duty to visit all these institutions, and they tell me that it is his great delight to see that better conditions prevail in the County Alms Houses, that the jails are made to meet the new conditions, that sanitary rules are observed, that the paupers and the prisoners are better clothed and better cared for, and to see that they are made happier and life made brighter for them. This is something that we did not know and something he did not tell us, and I feel that I am justified in letting you know the character of the man that you will have to deal with as your President during the coming year. I would like to speak longer but I am afraid of being accused of making a speech to-night, and I want to say in conclusion that it affords me very, very great pleasure to introduce to you Mr. Amos W. Butler, of Indiana, our beloved President.

MR. BUTLER: — *Dear Friends:* Some years ago I attended the National Conference of Charities for the first time. I realized then that charity was not alms giving, but it was giving something of one's self. The many kind friends that I made at that first Conference have been very helpful to me; they have given me out of their experience and out of their lives, the help that I needed and without which I could have done nothing. To them I owe much and as the years have gone on and this number of friends has increased year by year, you have all given me the help in my work that I needed, each out of his own experience, each out of his own life. I want to thank you for all that you have done in the past and, if I knew how, I would like to express my appreciation of the confidence in me that you have evidenced in the election to this office. I am indeed grateful for this expression of your regard. A year ago at Portland, Oregon, Miss Richmond came with an invitation for the Conference to meet in Philadelphia. By her splendid campaigning she secured the meeting here. We expected great things; all our expectations have been more than realized. It is high water mark. Sometimes following high water there is a recession. Let there be none now. Let us not have a reaction. Rather taking advantage of the inspiration and momentum gained here let us renew our spirits and push on. To-day, I have had many offers of help for next year. They are all gratefully received and many of those who have offered their assistance will be called upon to render service. I assume that I have offers from each member of this Conference, to use him or her in whatever manner the Executive Committee can see best. We commonly hear it said that it is a long way from the sea-board to the Mississippi Valley, but that is not true. From any of the large centers of the east, Chicago may be reached without a change of cars. We can get there to-night in eighteen hours and Minneapolis is not far away. We confidently expect that we will have a large attendance at Minneapolis from the eastern states, and particularly from the larger eastern cities, where so much is to be done that will be helpful to us in our discussions next year. It seems to be sure that the Conference of Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children will meet two days previous to the meeting of the National Conference. It is possible that other associations will meet in conjunction with it.

I am very much pleased to know that this National Conference of Charities and Correction has assigned as a part of its work for next year a Committee on Correction, and that there has been selected for the head of that committee one of the most eminent authorities in this country, Superintendent Scott, of the great New York State Reformatory at Elmira. Now it seems to me that it would be wise if we may bring those who are engaged in correctional work into closer connection with this

Conference, and to that end I am going to suggest that perhaps many of our members may find it possible to attend the next meeting of the National Prison Association, at Albany, New York, beginning September 15th. An invitation is extended to you; you will be welcome; the state of New York has made liberal preparation to entertain this association, and I might say that a word of encouragement from you may assist in inducing some of those workers, whom we should like to have in closer touch with the National Conference of Charities, to attend our meetings at Minneapolis next year. Several of the states have State Conferences of Charities that meet annually. You will attend some of these and I should like to ask you to see that the work of the National Conference of Charities is presented at the meeting of each State Conference, and that you use your influence to secure as large an attendance from your respective states, in that way, as possible. I want to appeal to each member of this Conference that you will consider yourself from now on a committee of one, first to assure your own presence at Minneapolis, and second to invite your friends, who should be interested in the work of this Conference, to attend. My friends, you don't want any more talk. From this time until the close of the Thirty-fourth Conference in June next at Minneapolis, it means work. I ask your cooperation, your thought, your effort that we may have in that great progressive state and in that beautiful city, a splendid Conference. On the opening night of this Conference, his Honor, the Mayor, gave into our charge the city of Philadelphia. We have used it just as we saw fit. Some of us are going to take part of it home with us. The Conference closes to-night. We cannot be responsible for your safety any longer. It becomes my duty to express our appreciation of the Mayor's kindly courtesy, of the generous hospitality he has extended to us in giving us the use of this beautiful old city, and to return it to him at this time.

MAYOR WEAVER: — *Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:* It surely is the duty of a Mayor as it is of any other public host to welcome the coming and speed the parting guest. I said to you one week ago to-night that the atmosphere outside was cold but the heart of Philadelphia was warm in hospitality to you. The continual pulsation of that heart has added to the temperature of the atmosphere until to-night you can begin to appreciate what the warmth of that hospitality was intended to be. I am exceedingly sorry that I could not attend all of the meetings, if it were possible for one person to attend all of your meetings, but I assure you I have not been entirely ignorant of what has been going on. I have attended one or two meetings, perhaps not of your Conference, but of kindred Conferences. I remember a few nights ago attending a meeting of the Baptist City Mission and introducing Mr. Sargeant, the Commissioner of Immigration, and hearing his speech on the number of immigrants that came

to this country last year and his suggestions as to what should be done with the immigrants, that they should be distributed through the farming districts of the far west, but he told us that over two hundred and fifty thousand of the million had stayed in Pennsylvania, and we want to assimilate those. It is a condition and not a theory that confronts us and it is your organization that will help us to assimilate. I note that great things are coming from this Conference; I note that there is going to be great assistance to the young, especially to the delinquent young; I note that there is going to be a great impetus given to the care of the sick and if what I am just going to say to you has been said before, tell me and I will immediately stop. I want to say that the death rate in Philadelphia last year was less than it had ever been before in the history of the city. There hss been a great deal said in the newspapers about the quantity of typhoid fever we were having here, because we did not have filtered water in every part of the city, as we should have, but all the diseases of children, the dread diseases of scarlet fever, diphtheria, typhoid fever, added together do not amount to five per cent. of the total deaths. I only state that to compare it with the statement that I am now going to make, that tuberculosis of the lungs and kindred diseases of the lungs constituted over twenty-two per cent. of the death rate of the city of Philadelphia. It shows the great fight that has got to be in all of the large cities, and perhaps in the smaller cities of the country, against the great white plague. I was very much interested in the papers read to-night on industrial insurance. I could not help thinking that there has been a great deal done in the past fifty years in this country. You know that we have in the city of Philadelphia and in nearly every large city, and perhaps in the smaller cities, a pension fund for the policemen and firemen. Then there are so many, so-called, secret societies that do such splendid work for the workingman, but I think in the city of Philadelphia that one of the best things that has helped the workingman, and that has been in the nature of an insurance, is the small investment that he has been able to put from month to month in the building association, to build his little house. Many thousands of the houses in Philadelphia have been bought and paid for by workingmen, out of the small amount they have been able to put in the building associations, and if some insurance feature could be added to the building associations, in the hands of honest men, men who do not want one hundred thousand dollars a year to look after the few dollars of the workingman, it would be the very best thing in all the large cities to help the workingman.

I think your President misunderstood me. I did not intend to give you the city of Philadelphia last Wednesday; I intended to give you the freedom of the city, and as the Conference is through it might be possible to take back the freedom of Phila-

delphia, but I am not going to do it. If you take the freedom of the city of Philadelphia away with you, we will have enough left here to give to other conferences. You are going about the Master's work; no greater work is being done. I hope that at future meetings of this Conferences of Charities and Correction that you will look back to the meeting at the city of Philadelphia and speak of it as starting some great new movement in one or more of your departments, that you will always look back to the city of Philadelphia and we shall be very glad to have you meet here again. I know that other cities must claim you and must take you, but remember that whenever you want to come back and get an inspiration, I ask you to come back to the City of Brotherly Love.

PRESIDENT BUTLER: — We will have just a word from Mr. deForest. I know you will be glad to hear what he has to say.

MR. DEFOREST: — This is quite unexpected. I didn't mean to say anything, but perhaps I can illustrate the attitude of the Conference toward our new President by a little story. I live in the summer time, in a small Long Island town, on the Sound. It is remote as yet from the inroads of steamboats and such craft, and the old fisher sloop and the old fisher schooner still inhabit it, and they are usually sailed by members of the same family. There is an old schooner there which is manned by father and son. Not long since they were sailing out on Long Island Sound in a fog. The father was at the wheel and the son was at the bow. The fog was very thick, and the son sang out from the bow, "Pa, luff 'er." No sound from the father. He did not luff 'er. "Say, pa, luff 'er." Still no sound from the father. "Pa, didn't you hear me tell you to luff 'er?" Another pause, during which she didn't luff. "John, you sail your end of this schooner, and I will sail mine." There was another pause and the father who was at the wheel looking through the fog toward the bow saw his son leaning over the bow and he heard the anchor chain going down and he said, "John, what are you doing there in the bow?" "Pa, you sail your end of the boat and I will take care of mine. I have just anchored mine." Now that is not the way we are going to treat our president. I can assure him when he is at the wheel, we will not sail our end of the boat; we won't even suggest to him to luff it; we will just let him manage that boat and we will obey orders. I have a personal line from Dr. Devine; it came to me while I was on the platform and it seems to me appropriate to read two extracts from it. They do not relate to the work of the Conference; they simply indicate the work before him and those with him in San Francisco.

"I look for a speedy winding up of the food and clothing distribution. I am already giving my thought, though hardly yet any of my time, to the special relief work which is now to come. I am glad Frankel is coming and I am glad Bicknell is coming

back. Organizing the emergency force from utter strangers, is not the easiest of several difficulties. I am losing sleep and surplus weight, but I never felt so well in my life. Out of doors, trotting all day over these pavements, is good for the system. The general health of the city is also good, though typhoid and smallpox are somewhat encroaching."

It seems appropriate that we should close with this word from our former President.

Dr. Henderson pronounced the benediction, whereupon the Conference adjourned *sine die*.

Appendices.

APPENDIX A.

HOUSING CONDITIONS IN PHILADELPHIA.

THE ACT

Of June 7, 1895, provides:

Section 1. That no tenement house shall hereafter be erected, altered or constructed in any city of the first class, unless such erection, alteration or construction shall be in conformity with the provisions of this act.

Section 2. Every tenement house hereafter erected, altered or constructed in any city of the first class shall have attached to it in the rear or at the side an open space equal in area to at least twenty per centum of the entire area of the lot upon which said tenement house is erected, which open space shall be unobstructed, by any overhanging structure, except fire-escapes required by law, unless, however, such tenement house shall be erected upon a corner of two streets, neither of which is less than twenty feet in width, in which case said tenement house shall have an open space attached to it in the rear or at the side next the adjoining lot, equal in area to at least ten per centum of the entire area of the lot upon which said tenement house is erected, which open space shall be unobstructed by any overhanging structure, except fire escapes required by law; and any such tenement house which shall be erected upon a lot bounded on three sides by streets not less than twenty feet in width may be erected to cover the entire area of said lot: Provided, That every window opening from the living rooms in said tenement house shall open upon one of such streets. Such open space attached to every such tenement house shall be at least eight feet in width throughout its entire length. No court or open space between tenement houses or between wings of a tenement house shall be of a less width than twelve feet. If such tenement house shall be built upon a lot which is bounded upon two opposite sides by streets, then at least one end of every such open space shall abut upon one of such streets. Every court or shaft which shall be built for the purpose of furnishing light or air to any such tenement house shall open upon one side into a street or into the yard or open space, except such shafts as may be necessary for the ventilation of water closets or bath rooms.

Section 3. Every room in every such tenement house shall have at least one window opening upon a street or upon the open space provided for in the second section of this act. And the distance from every window in every such tenement house to the wall or party line opposite to it shall be at least eight feet. The halls on each floor of every tenement house shall have a window or windows opening either upon a street or upon the open space provided for in the second section of this act, and shall have no room or other obstruction at the end unless sufficient light and ventilation is otherwise provided for said halls in a manner approved by the Chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection. But whenever in the judgment of the Chief of the Bureau of Building In-

spection it shall be possible to construct such tenement houses without corridors connecting the entrance of several tenements or suites of rooms, the Chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection may require that such tenement house be so constructed that it shall contain no such corridors.

Section 4. Every habitable room in every such tenement house shall be of such dimensions as to contain at least seven hundred cubic feet of air. Every habitable room in every such tenement house shall be in every part not less than eight feet in height from floor to ceiling, and every window shall have an opening of not less than twelve square feet in superficial area, but the Bureau of Building Inspection may permit windows of less size than twelve square feet if more than one window is provided for a room, so that, however, the total window space for one room shall not be less than twelve square feet.

Section 5. All stairways in such tenement houses shall lead directly to the ground floor. The location and construction of all stairways shall be determined by the Chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection, so as to provide for the safety of the occupants of such tenement house.

All such tenement houses shall be provided with a tower fire-escape or tower fire-escapes, enclosed in incombustible material, the number and location of which shall be determined by the Chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection.

All stairways shall have a rise of not over eight inches to a step and not less than nine inches tread, exclusive of the nosing. All stairways and all hallways must not be less than three feet in width in houses containing less than fifteen rooms, not less than three feet six inches in width in houses containing not less than fifteen rooms and not more than twenty-five rooms, and not less than four feet in width in houses containing twenty-five or more rooms.

Section 6. In every such tenement house there shall be one water closet for every tenement or suite of rooms which has its own independent hallway, so separated that its rooms do not open into or connect with any other rooms; and in tenement houses so constructed that a tenement may consist of a single room or of two rooms, there shall be at least one water closet for every three rooms: Provided, That in the case of buildings existing at the date of this act, which shall hereafter be altered into tenement houses, there shall be one water closet for six rooms, but not less than one for each floor. Every water closet shall be separated from every other water closet, and shall have an entrance entirely independent of the entrance to every other water closet. There shall also be an independent water supply, and at least one sink for every tenement or suite of rooms. No hydrant shall be permitted in the yard or open space provided for in the second section of this act.

Section 7. In every such tenement house there shall be a suitable receptacle for ashes, constructed of incombustible material, and interior chutes or shafts leading to the same shall not be permitted.

Section 8. All such tenement houses, more than four stories in height, which shall hereafter be erected, altered or constructed, shall be made fire-proof throughout: Provided, however, That this section shall not preclude the use of wooden floor boards and sleepers or beams to which to fasten the same, which, however, shall be imbedded to their top surface in incombustible material.

Section 9. The chief of the Bureau of Building Inspection shall require such plans and specifications of any proposed erections, alterations or constructions of tenement houses as sufficiently set forth and record the intent of the builder to comply with the requirements of this act to be filed with him. And no permit for the erection or construction

of any such tenement houses shall be granted unless the same shall be in conformity with the provisions of this act.

Section 10. Any person who shall erect, alter or construct such a tenement house, except in conformity with the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof, be sentenced to an imprisonment not exceeding three months, or to pay a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, or both, at the discretion of the court.

Section 11. Whenever any owner or builder shall deem himself aggrieved by any decision of the Court of the Bureau of Building Inspection made in performance of the powers conferred upon him by this act, such owner or builder shall be entitled to an appeal from such decision, as provided by Section 5 of the act to which this is a supplement.

Section 12. The term tenement house in this act shall be taken to mean every building which, or a portion of which, is occupied or is to be occupied as a residence of three or more families, living independently of each other, and doing their cooking upon the premises.

APPENDIX A — Continued.

HOUSING CONDITIONS IN PHILADELPHIA.

Percentage of one-family houses built in certain cities in 1890 and 1900:

	1890	1900
Indianapolis	94.	93.9
Cleveland	83.9	79.7
St. Louis	66.9	62.3
Buffalo	74.6	69.3
Chicago	60.4	53.7
Boston	59.	56.7

If we include two family houses, little change in the percentage is seen in the ten years, for most of the six cities which have lost in the former table have gained in the succeeding:

Proportion of two family houses in

	1890	1900
Indianapolis	4.8	4.7
Cleveland	13.2	16.2
St. Louis	24.2	30.2
Buffalo	17.8	21.5
Chicago	22.5	26.6
Boston	23.8	23.4
Philadelphia	5.7	5.2
Baltimore	13.8	11.8

APPENDIX B.

TABULATED STATEMENT OF PLAYGROUNDS IN THIRTY-SIX CITIES.

	Cities.	School population.	Playgrounds.				Means of support.		Average number of children in attendance.	
			School.	Park.	Public.	Private.	Appropriation from city.	Contributions and subscriptions, individual and societies.	Girls.	Boys.
1	Allegheny		9				$1,500	Contributions, Phipps donat'n	3,000 daily du	ring 5 weeks.
2	Atlanta	15,000		sev'l			Partly			
3	Baltimore	67,000	17	7			Use of school buildings	All but buildings		
4	Boston	98,000		17			Partly			
5	Buffalo	52,000	2	1	3	1	6 by public funds	1 by contributions	1,000 (⅓ girls,	⅔ boys).
6	Cambridge	16,000		2			Partly			
7	Chicago	272,000	90	4	4	3	School and city funds	2 by individuals	6,000	9,000
8	Cincinnati	131,000		2	2	3	Appropriation	Subscription		
9	Cleveland	65,000		8						
10	Columbus		3		4		Partly	Subscription	600	700
11	Dayton		3			1	Use of school yards	Contributions		
12	Denver	46,000		7			Seven			
13	Detroit	88,000		8			Partly			
14	Fall River	16,000		2			"			
15	Grand Rapids	16,000	some	4			School yards			
16	Hartford	18,000		2			One	One		
17	Jersey City	35,000		1			One			
18	Kansas City	69,000		3			Partly			
19	Louisville		3		2		3 school yards	For two		
20	Memphis	40,000		5						
21	Minneapolis		5				Equipment, janitors	Societies, tuition	350	350
22	Newark	47,000	3				Three			
23	New Haven	19,000 (1902)	3	1		1	Use of grounds	Private subscription	4	00
24	New Orleans	96,000								
25	New York	627 000	76	13		4	Mostly	Societies	10,000 in park in school y	s alone. 23,246 ards.
26	Philadelphia	271,000	36	4		1	Almost entirely	Donated by individuals	23,	897
27	Pittsburgh		9	2	2		$5,000 appropriation	Women's clubs, etc.	3,	985
28	Portland, Me		2	1			Partly		1	50
29	Providence	37,000	4	2			"			
30	Scranton	18,000		2						
31	Seattle	24,000		2						
32	Springfield	12,000		4						
33	St. Louis	199,000	6		1		Use of school yards	Private subscription	2,310	1,255
34	St. Paul	27,000	2	1		1	Approp'n not exceed'g $10,000		3,950	4,885
35	Washington		13	2		3	$35,000 by Congress	Associated charities, etc	5,	000
36	Worcester	21,000		8	12	ball fields	Partly	Contro'ed by playground ass'n		

APPENDIX C.

CHARTS ON PENSIONS AND RETIREMENT FUNDS.

SUPPLEMENTARY TO GOVERNMENT AND MUNICIPAL PENSIONS BY AMOS W. BUTLER.

Status of Teacher's Retirement Funds in 1897. *Review of Reviews. Vol. XV.*

	Approved.	Number of teachers.	Present contributing membership.	Approximate amount from deductions from salaries.	Minimum annuity.	Present number of annuitants.	Average annuity.	Maximum annuity.	Average years service of retired teacher.	Minimum years service required.	Joining elective.	Amount of permanent fund.
Brooklyn	May 13, 1895	2,929	2,193	$18,869 34	Half pay	21	$519 00	$1,200	30	30	Yes for old teachers	$23,218 33
Detroit	May 22, 1895	740	730	5,421 81	" "	16	292 75	400	31	25	No	None
Chicago	May 31, 1895	4,900	5,200	45,000 00	" "	36	400 00	600	35	F. 20, M. 25	"	57,000 00
New York	June 4, 1895	5,033	5,033	60,000 00	" "	92	600 00	1,000	30	F. 30	Yes for old teachers	98,000 00
San Francisco	March 26, 1895	950	461	5,067 34	$540	8	540 00	600	30	20	Yes.	None
St. Louis	March —, 1895	1,576	590	3,232 75	60% of former salary	....	....	800	.....	F. 25, M. 30	"	"
New Jersey	March 11, 1896	5,384	2,510	13,000 00	$250	.....	280 00	600	35	20	"	9,000 00
Buffalo	April —, 1896	1,100	1,100	7,000 00	Half pay	8	300 00	600	34	.....	No	6,733 80
Cincinnati	April 14, 1896	940	940	7,700 00	" "	.....	.....	600	.....	.....	"	.....

APPENDIX C — Continued.

Pensions — Policemen.

	Retirement.	Disability.	Widows.	Funeral Expenses.
New Jersey	After 20 years			
Boston	25 years, ½ former salary	½ to ⅔ former salary	$800 per annum	$1,000
Buffalo				150
Chicago				
Cincinnati	$50 per month			
Cleveland	$50 per month	$50 per month	$20 per month	
Dayton	$40 per month			
District of Columbia				
Fall River, Mass				
Grand Rapids				
Jersey City				500
Louisville				
Newark	20 years, ½ former salary	½ former salary	½ husband's former salary	
New York, N. Y.	½ former salary	$300 to $600 per year	$300 per year	
Paterson				
Philadelphia				
Pittsburg				
Providence				
St. Louis				
St. Paul				
San Francisco	½ former salary	½ former salary	½ husband's former salary	
Trenton, N. J.				
Wilmington				
Worcester				
Syracuse	½ former salary, 20 years service	From $300 to $600 yer year	$300 per annum	
Detroit	$40 after 25 years service			
Indiana	3-5 former salary	½ former salary	$20 per month	150

APPENDIX C — Continued.

Police Pensions — Fund.

Syracuse, N. Y..... ...	Former police relief fund.	Fines imposed on police.	Rewards, fees, gifts, etc., to policemen.	Lost, abandoned, unclaimed or stolen money and property.	Deductions from salaries for absence, etc.	% of salaries.	Money for bail bonds.	
Newark, N. J.....		"	"	"	"	1%		
Cleveland, O.....		"	"	"		"	Not to exceed 3-10 of mill tax.	
Detroit, Mich.....	Money in police life and death insurance fund.	"	"	"		"	Remainder necessary by tax.	
New York, N. Y.....	Former police life insurance fnnd.	"	"	"	"		$300,000 from excise tax annually.	Fees from entertainments.
Indianapolis, Ind.....		"	"	"		Not to exceed $15 per year.	Not to exceed 1-10 of mill tax.	"
San Francisco, Cal.....		"	"	"			From 5 to 10% of excise tax.	Fines for carrying concealed weapons.

APPENDIX C — Continued.

Firemen's Pensions — Benefit.

	Disabled.	Retirement.	Widows.	Children.	Dependent Parents.
Ohio	$50 per month	After 25 years $40 per Mo.	$20 per month	$6 per month	$20 per month.
Boston, Mass	½ former salary	½ former salary after 23 years service	$300 per year	Not to exceed $300 per annum	
Chciago, Ill			$30 per month	$6 per month	½ son's former salary.
Cincinnati, O			$50 per month		
Dist. of Columbia	Not exceed $100 per Mo.	$450 per y ar after 20 years service			
Grand Rapids, Mich					
Hartford, Conn					
Jersey City, N. J.	Not exceed $100 per Mo.	$25 per month			
Lowell, Mass					
Lynn, Mass	$8 to $10 per month				
Milwaukee, Wis					
Minneapolis, Minn.	$12.50 to $40 per month				
Newark, N. J.					
New Orleans, La					
New York, N. Y.	⅓ to ½ former salary		Circumstances determine amount	Circumstances determine amount	
Omaha, Neb	25% of former salary		25% of former salary of husband		
Paterson, N. J.					
St. Joseph, Mo.					
St, Louis, Mo.					$25 per month.
Syracuse, N. Y.	½ former salary		$35 per month		$25 per month.
Toledo, O	$50 per month	$50 per month after 25 years service	$25 per month	$7 per month	$25 per month.
Troy, N. Y.					
New Jersey	½ former salary	½ former salary after 20 years service	½ former salary of husband	$5 per month	
Columbus, O	$20 to $40 per month	$40 per month after 25 years service	$20 per month	$6 per month	
Baltimore, Md.	½ former salary				
San Francisco, Cal.	½ former salary		$25 per month	$5 per month	
Buffalo, N. Y.	½ former salary				
Providence, R. I.	Not to exceed $600 per annum				
Indiana	½ former salary	3-5 former salary	$20 per month	$6 per month	$12 per month.

APPENDIX C — Concluded

Firemen's Pensions — Fund.

New York, N. Y....	Former monies belonging to said fund.	Fines on members of the department.	Rewards, gifts, etc.	Certain license fees.	Proceeds from the sale of old department property.	Deduction on account of absence, etc.	10% of the excise tax.		
Columbus, O.		"	"	"			3-10 of a mill tax.	% of salaries.	
Syracuse, N. Y. ...	Monies from former pension fund.	"	"		"			"	2% tax on foreign insurance cos.
Toledo, O.....							Tax.	"	
Washington, D. C..									Fines in police court and dog tax.
San Francisco ...	Levied by tax.								
Buffalo, N. Y.....	Former relief fund.	"	"	"	"		3% of the state liquor tax.		"

APPENDIX D.

A PARTIAL BIBLIOGRAPHY OF GOVERNMENT AND MUNICIPAL PENSIONS.

Allen, E. A. Teachers Pensions. The story of a woman's campaign. Rev. of Rev. 15:700. June 1897.

Bacon, L. W. A Raid upon the Treasury. Forum 6:540.

Blackley, William Lewery. Chamberlain's Pension Scheme. Cont. Rev. vol. 61:382-396. March 1892.

Bourne, H. Clarence. National Pensions. Macmillan's Magazine, vol. 65: 312-320. February 1892.

Brewer, E. A Civil Service retirement fund. No. American Review. vol. 166: 124.

City Record. City Retirement funds. Vol. 2:185. March 16, 1899. (From Select List of References on Old Age and Civil Service Pensions. Library of Congress 1903.)

City Record. Municipal and other Pension Schemes. Vol. 3.265. April 26, 1900. (From Select List of References on Old Age and Civil Service Pensions. Library of Congress 1903.)

Clark, S. M. Some weak places in our Pension System. Forum 26:306.

Davenport, J. L. National Pension Systems. (Compiled from information furnished by the diplomatic officers of the U. S. 1902.) Senate Document No. 56, 57th Congress.

Dudley, Major R. H. Report of Confederate Soldiers' Homes. (Proc. National Conference of Charities and Correction 1896, p. 294.)

Eaton, D. C. Pensions. New Haven, Conn. E. P. Judd, 1893.

Foote, Allen R. Degradation of Pensions. The Protest of Loyal Volunteers. Forum 12: 423.

Girdner. To purge the Pension List. No. American Review 166:374.

Glasson, W. H. History of Military Pension Legislation in the U. S. Columbia Univ. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Vol. 12, No. 3, 1900. PP 106-7-11-29. The South and Service Pension Laws. So. Atlantic Quar. Oct. 1902, p. 351. The National Pension System as applied to the Civil War and the War with Spain. Annals Amer. Acad. of Pol. and Social Science, March 1902, p. 40. A costly Pension Law, Act. of June 27, 1890, So. Atlantic Quar. October 1904.

Gunton's Magazine. Teachers' Pensions, Vol. 14:393. June 1898. (From Select List of References on Old Age and Civil Service Pensions.) Library of Congress 1903.

Hall, E. H. An indignity to our citizen soldiers. With an appendix giving statistics of Pension Legislation and Expenditures. Cambridge University Press, 1890.

Howard, O. O. Military and Naval Pensions of the U. S. Journal of the Military Service Institution of the U. S. Vol. 2, Jan. 1890, pp. 1-15.

King, Horatio and others. Military and Naval Pensions of the U. S. Journal of the Military Service Institution, Vol. 2, Jan. 1890, pp. 158-162.

Leupp, F. E. Defects in our Pension System. Forum 31:670.

Mason, Edward Campbell. The veto power: its origin, development and function in the government of the U. S. 1789-1889. Harvard Historical Monographs, No. 1. Sect. 71-81.

McClurg, A. C. Pensions: Civil and Military. Sunset Club of Chicago Echoes 1891, pp. 147-150.

Morton, M. B. Federal and Confederate Pensions Contrasted. Forum 16:68.

National Educational Assn. Report of Committee on Salaries, Tenure and Pensions of Public School Teachers in the U. S. July 1905.
Nation. Civil Service Pensions. Vol. 70:452.
New York Consolidation Act. Police Pensions.
Outlook. Service Pensions. (Editorial) Vol. 76:680.
Public Opinion. The Spanish War Pensions. Vol. 26:486.
Public Opinion. Spanish War Pensions. Vol. 30:487.
Public Opinion. Civil Service Pensions. Vol. 29:9-10.
Rae, John. State Pensions. Economic Journal, Vol. 2:183-5. Mar. 1892.
Randolph, Maj. N. V. Report of Confederate Soldiers' Homes. Proc. Nat. Conf. Char. and Cor. 1896, p. 294.
Raum, Green B. Pensions and Patriotism. N. A. Rev. 153:205.
Sato, Shosuke. Military Bounties. Johns Hopkins Univ. Studies, Vol. 4, p. 389.
Slocum, H. W. Pensions. A Time to call a halt. Forum 12: 646.
Tupper, Frederic Allison. A Retirement Fund for Teachers. Journal of Education. Nov. 9, 1905, to April 26, 1906.
Trumbull, M. M. Pensions for all. Pop. Science Month. 35:721.
U. S. Laws governing the granting of army and navy pensions together with the regulations relating thereto. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1902, 309 PP.)
U. S. Commissioner of Pensions. Annual Reports.
U. S. Commissioner of Education. Pensions for Teachers. An. Report 1894-5. Vol. 1: 1079.
U. S. Life Saving Service. Pensions and Retirement. Annual Report 1904, p. 47.
U. S. Library of Congress. Select List of References on Old Age and Civil Service Pensions. 1903.
Warner, J. D. A Half Million per day for Pensions. Forum 15:439.
Woodnorth, J. H. Pensions and State Soldiers' Homes. Proc. Nat'l. Conf. C. & C. 1896, p. 285.
Wright, A. O. Pensions and Soldiers' Homes. Proc. Nat'l Conf. C. & C. 1895, p. 303.

APPENDIX E.

LIST OF PLACES OF MEETING AND GENERAL OFFICERS OF THE CONFERENCE.

(Prepared in compliance with resolution of the Conference adopted May 15th 1906.)

Year.	Place.	President.	General Secretary.	Treasurer.
1874	New York	J. V. L. Pruyn	F. B. Sanborn	
1875	Detroit	John J. Bageley		
1876	Saratoga	Samuel J. Tilden		
1877	Saratoga	John V. L. Pruyn	F. B. Sanborn	
1878	Cincinnati	R. M. Bishop	F. B. Sanborn	
1879	Chicago	G. M. Robinson	F. B. Sanborn	
1880	Cleveland	Roeliff Brinkerhoff	F. H. Wines	
1881	Boston	F. B. Sanborn	F. B. Sanborn	
1882	Madison, Wis.	Andrew E. Elmore	A. O. Wright	
1883	Louisville	F. H. Wines	A. O. Wright	
1884	St. Louis	Wm. P. Letchworth	A. O. Wright	
1885	Washington	Philip A. Garrett	A. O. Wright	
1886	St. Paul	Wm. Howard Neff	H. H. Hart	
1887	Omaha	H. H. Giles	H. H. Hart	
1888	Buffalo	Dr. Charles S. Hoyt	H. H. Hart	
1889	San Francisco	Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie	L. C. Storrs	F. B. Sanborn.
1890	Baltimore	A. G. Byers	Alexander Johnson	Wm. P. Letchworth.
1891	Indianapolis	Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch	Alexander Johnson	Wm. P. Letchworth.
1892	Denver	Rev. Myron W. Reed	Alexander Johnson	Wm. P. Letchworth.
1893	Chicago	Hastings H. Hart	L. C. Storrs	John M. Glenn.
1894	Nashville	Lucius C. Storrs	A. O. Wright	John M. Glenn.
1895	New Haven	Robert Treat Paine	H. H. Hart	John M. Glenn.
1896	Grand Rapids	A. O. Wright	H. H. Hart	John M. Glenn.
1897	Toronto	Alexander Johnson	H. H. Hart	Levi L. Barbour.
1898	New York	Wm. R. Stewart	H. H. Hart	Levi L. Barbour.
1899	Cincinnati	Chas. R. Henderson	H. H. Hart	Levi L. Barbour.
1900	Topeka	Chas. E. Faulkner	H. H. Hart	A. O. Crozier.
1901	Washington	John M. Glenn	H. H. Hart	A. O. Crozier.
1902	Detroit	Timothy Nicholson	Jos. P. Byers	A. O. Crozier.
1903	Atlanta	Rob't W. deForest	Jos. P. Byers	A. O. Crozier.
1904	Portland, Me.	Jeffrey R. Brackett	Jos. P. Byers	A. O. Crozier.
1905	Portland, Ore.	Rev. Samuel G. Smith	Alexander Johnson	J. G. Phelps Stokes.
1906	Philadelphia	Edward T. Devine	Alexander Johnson	Robert J. Hoguet.

APPENDIX F.

REPORT OF INMATES RECEIVED AT THE..... .....

FOR THE MONTH

MADE TO THE BOARD OF STATE

Number.	FULL NAME. (SURNAME FIRST.)	Received.	Crime.	Plea.	Date of Sentence.	Term.	County.	Age.	Color.	Civil Condition.	Mental Condition.	Physical Condition.	Birthplace.	Education.	Church.	Tobacco.	Cigarettes.	Drinks.	Left Home what Age.	Members of Y. M. C. A.	Attended Sunday School.

Total number of inmates enrolled last day of month, *Total number of inmates actually*

NOTES.

Most of the spaces can be filled by a single stroke under the proper heading. Under "Color," write C. for colored and W. for white. Under "Civil Condition," write S. for single, M. for married, and W. for widowed. Under "Mental Condition," state whether active, fair or dull; for insane, write Ins.; feeble-minded, F. M.; epileptic, Ep. Under "Physical Condition," state whether good, fair or poor, and indicate whether crippled, blind, deaf, or diseased. Education may be indicated by Ill, for illiterate, R. and W. for read and write, 4th Gr. for fourth grade, and H. S. for High School.

Under "Church," give the name of that to which the inmate belongs, if any, using R. C. for Roman Catholic, Ep. for Episcopalian, Pres. for Presbyterian, Bap. for Baptist,

APPENDIX F.

....

OF .....

CHARITIES, BY..... .....

Occupation when Crime was Committed.	Trade.	Arrested before for	No. times previously convicted.	Character of Associates.	PARENTS. NAME.	Birthplace.	Education.	Church.	Criminal.	Drunkard.	Feeble-Minded.	Epileptic.	Insane.	Consumptive.	Prostitute.	Pecuniary Condition.	Living Together.	Dead.	REMARKS.

present last day of month, *Daily average number of inmates present during month,*

Meth. for Methodist, Cong. for Congregationalist, Chris. for Christian, Luth. for Lutheran, etc. If the inmate is an attendant upon church, add At.

Under "Drinks," write None, or M. for moderately, or E. for excessively. Under "Tobacco," write C. for chews, and S. for smokes. If not used, say No.

The character of Associates can be indicated by the words, Good, Mixed or Bad Aliases by which an inmate is known may be given under "Remarks," or on the back of the report. If the inmate has any children, or brothers and sisters, their names, if known, should be given on the back of the report.

Under Parents' Name the line has been equally divided, and you will write the father's name on the first and the mother's on the second line.

APPENDIX F.

Name of Correctional Institution.	Doe, John.	Color.	Born.	Civil Cond.	Ill.	Birthplace.
	Mental Condition.	Crime	Plea.	Sentence.	Term.	Received.	Paroled.	Discharged.
	Physical Condition.							
No.								

Co. Fd.		Name.	Inst.	Reg. No.	Nation.	Educa.	Church.	Pec. Con.	Dead.	Crim.	Drunk.	F. M.	Ep.	Ins.	Cons.	Prost.	Illegit.	Sep.	Paupcr.
Church S. S. Y. M. C. A. L. h. Aged Associates Tobacco Cigarettes Drinks Occupa. Trade Pre. Conv.	Fath. Moth. Bro. Sis. Son Dau.																		

APPENDIX F.

| Name of Charitable Institution. | | |

APPENDIX F.

REPORT OF PAROLES, DISCHARGES AND DEATHS AT THE .... FOR THE MONTH OF ...., 190....

MADE TO THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, BY..... .. ..

Number.	NAME.	Date.	Pardoned, Paroled, Discharged or Died.	CAUSE.	Number.	NAME.	Date.	Pardoned, Paroled, Discharged or Died.	CAUSE.

"PAROLE," so far as it applies to Reform School for Boys and Industrial School for Girls, means "TICKET-OF-LEAVE." Indicate whether paroled by Governor or Board of Parole.

APPENDIX F.

REPORT OF PATIENTS RECEIVED, DISCHARGED, DIED AND FURLOUGHED, AT THE HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE, FOR THE MONTH OF ...., 190....

REPORTED TO THE BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES, BY..... .... , MEDICAL SUPERINTENDENT.

NEW PATIENTS RECEIVED.

	Hospital Number.	FULL NAME. (SURNAME FIRST.)	County.	Date of Admission.	Age on Admission.	Sex.	Civil Condition.	White or Colored.	Birthplace.	Form of Insanity.	Physical Condition.	Clothing, etc., furnished by	REMARKS. (Give names of parents and relatives, stating who are defective, and in what way.)

RETURNED FROM FUR.				DISCHARGED, DIED OR FURLOUGHED.								
	Hospitol Number.	NAME.	County.	Date of Retuan.	Hospital Number.	NAME.	Date.	Discharged, Died, or Fur.	Reason of Discharge or Cause of Death.	Hospital Number.	NAME.	Date.	Discharged, Died, or Fur.	Reason of Discharge or Cause of Death.

APPENDIX G.

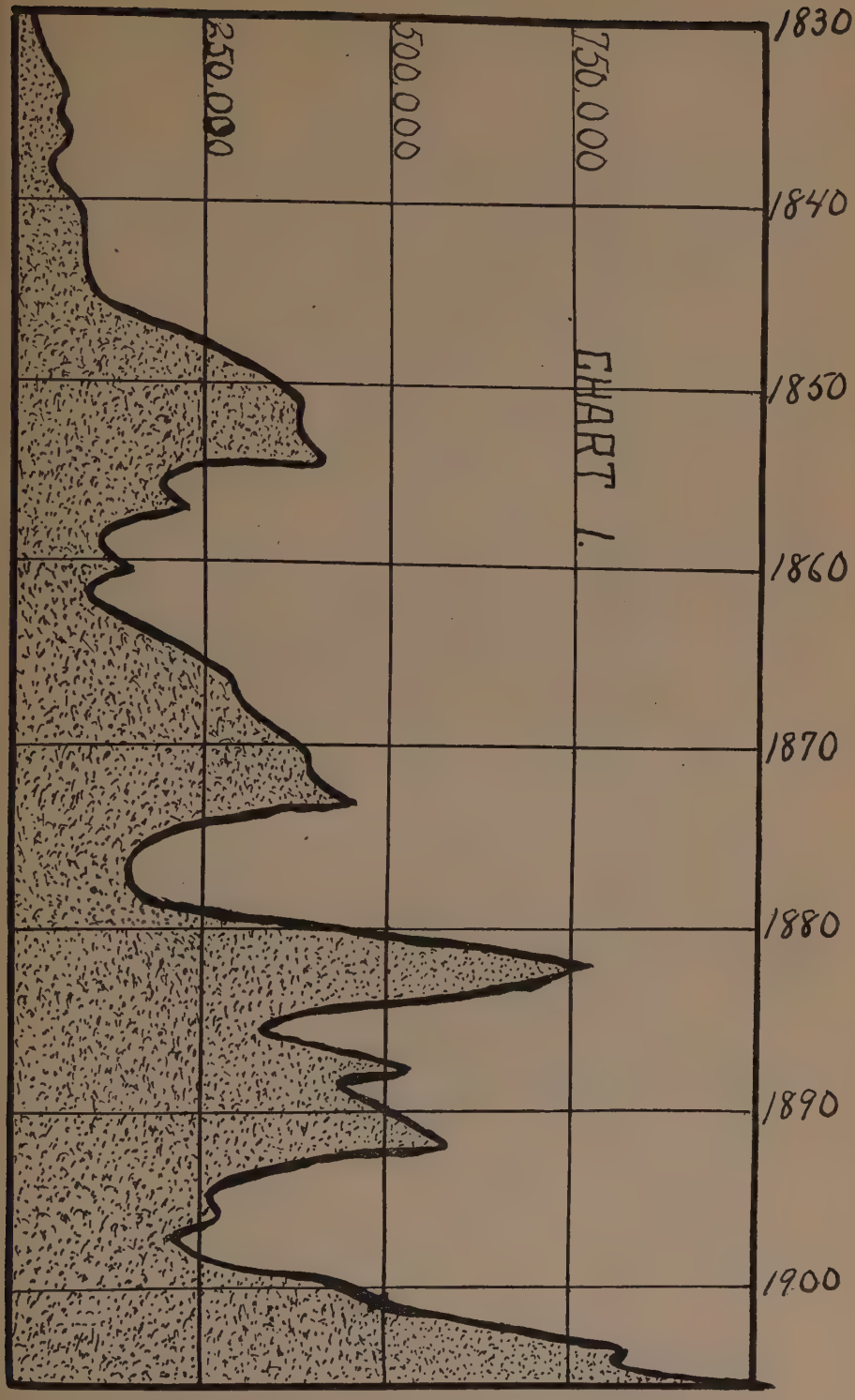
CHARTS ILLUSTRATING ARTICLE ON RACE EFFECTS OF IMMIGRATION.

Explanation of Charts.

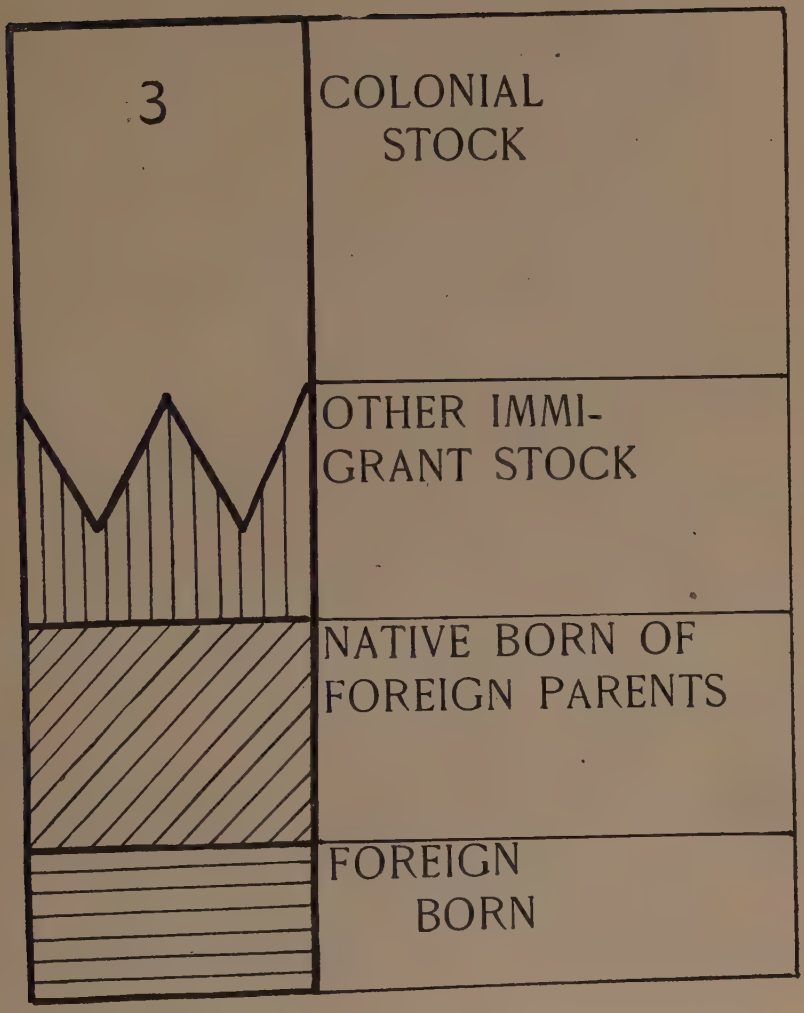
Explanation of Chart 1. This chart shows the main fluctuations of the immigration movement. It is to be noticed that the movement did not assume large proportions until 1845 and that our immigration has come in waves, each larger than its predecessor. We seem today to be just beginning the fourth and largest wave.

Explanation of Chart 2. This chart shows in percentage form the racial composition of our immigration, by periods, from 1820 to the present time. Obviously, the statistics will not permit absolute accuracy and consequently the broken line is frequently used in dividing one race from another. While probably not absolutely accurate the chart does serve a useful function in showing the proportions of Baltic and non-Baltic elements in our immigration and it is evident that our early immigration was nearly all Baltic while today the larger element is non-Baltic.

Explanation of Chart 3. There is here shown the different elements of the *white* population in the U. S. in 1900. Since no one can accurately compute the number of descendants of immigrant stock the broken line is again used to indicate an estimate. Admitting the difficulties and possible inaccuracies of the chart, it nevertheless shows by its percentage representation that immigration has greatly influenced our population. It should be carefully borne in mind that the chart deals with the white population alone. The problem is accentuated when one reflects that the negro element is 11.6% of our total population.


250,000
500,000
750,000
1830
1840
1850
1860
1870
1880
1890
1900
CHART I.

2
BALTIC
ALPINE
MEDITERRANEAN
1820 TO 1860
1861 TO 1890
1891 TO 1900
1901 TO 1905


3
COLONIAL STOCK
OTHER IMMI-GRANT STOCK
NATIVE BORN OF FOREIGN PARENTS
FOREIGN BORN

APPENDIX H (Reports from States).

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

ADULT DELINQUENTS.

State.	Criminals (Felons.)									Vicious (Misdemeanants.)					
	In State Prisons.			In County Prisons.			In Reformatories for Adults.			In Jails Waiting Trial.			In Jails and Work houses Serving Sentence.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	.....	.....	*900	.....	.....	.....	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	681	26	707	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	162	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	473	11	484	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	958
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	‡15	15	.....	.....	‡34	251	25	276
District of Columbia	.....	.....	†406	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35	5	40	652	88	740
Georgia †	4,267	296	4,563	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	2,376	51	2,427	.....	.....	.....	955	.....	955	.....	.....	.....	1,219	71	1,290
Indiana †	896	53	949	.....	.....	.....	1,084	.....	1,084	302	15	317	452	50	502
Iowa	880	18	898	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	.....	.....	1,167	.....	.....	.....	390	.....	390	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	1,918	65	1,983	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	1,500	45	1,545	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	165	365	147	512
Maine †	171	3	174	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	3	73	367	21	388
Maryland	930	75	1,005	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*1,500
Massachusetts	843	.....	843	‡2,579	426	3,005	852	189	1,041	308	44	352	‡1,046	70	1,116
Michigan	975	.....	975	.....	.....	.....	519	.....	519	.....	.....	.....	*427	61	488
Minnesota	711	8	719	.....	.....	.....	298	.....	298	167	3	170	245	25	270
Missouri	2,006	63	2,069	728	43	771	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*400	550	100	650
Nebraska	311	4	315	.....	.....	.....	.....	‡38	38	.....	.....	190	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	164	3	167	.....	.....	†	259	23	‡282	.....	.....	.....	172	12	184
New Jersey	1,197	46	1,243	717	56	773	400	.....	400	261	11	272	304	30	334
New York	3,366	86	3,452	‡2,015	214	2,229	1,656	‡2,227	3,883	1,297	119	1,416	2,768	736	3,504
North Carolina	614	41	655	903	16	‡919	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*500

North Dakota	254	3	257	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,650
Ohio	1,497	56	1,553	.....	.....	.....	785	.....	785	.....	.....	390	.....	.....	.....	
Oregon †	403	3	406	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	51	2	53	89	2	41	
Pennsylvania †	1,957	31	1,988	.....	.....	.....	702	.....	702	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Rhode Island	144	.....	144	.....	.....	.....	.....	17	†17	.....	.....	.....	487	89	576	
Texas †	.....	.....	*4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Utah	181	.....	181	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Vermont	.....	.....	180	.....	.....	.....	188	27	215	.....	.....	*25	.....	.....	*27	
Virginia	1,579	65	1,644	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Washington †	765	13	778	136	9	145	.....	.....	.....	141	6	147	.....	.....	.....	
West Virginia	1,171	33	†1,204	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	140	16	156	160	20	180	
Wisconsin	640	18	658	285	.....	285	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Ontario (Canada)	805	7	812	618	103	721	.....	57	57	124	.....	124	.....	.....	†1,260	

NOTES ON STATISTICS OF ADULT DELINQUENTS.

* All figures so marked are estimated.

Arkansas — † Legislature of 1905 established a reformatory for young men and women which is now building.

Delaware — † Crittenden Home, 9 women, 6 girls. ‡ New Castle County only.

District of Columbia — † No district prison, convicts are kept under contract at Moundsville, W. Va.

Georgia — † Figures are probably of all prisoners for year.

Indiana — † The daily average attendance of the four State Penal Institutions of Indiana for 1905 was 2,781.37. This was 783.02, or about 4% greater than for 1890, since which year the population of the state has increased 20%.

Maine — † A few of the convicts in state prison and county jails are minors.

Massachusetts — † Including 2,305 serving sentence in jails. ‡ The number serving sentence at State Farm.

Michigan — * In Detroit House of Correction.

Nebraska — †Industrial Home for Women.

New Hampshire — † With jails. ‡Including workhouses.

New Jersey — † State statistics are accurate. County figures incomplete.

New York — † County penitentiaries. ‡ Of these 650 are in State Reformatories and 1,577 in Private Institutions.

North Carolina — † Convict camps. Total convict population divided between white and colored is white 333, colored 1,261; the proportion of colored in state prison is 74.3%; in camps 82.5%.

Oregon — † Partial statistics.

Pennsylvania — † All statistics are for September, 1904.

Rhode Island — † In Rescue Mission and Sophia Little Home.

Texas — †There is a prison farm for consumptive convicts of which the state is particularly proud.

Virginia — † Includes convicts in penitentiary (white 229 m., 7 f. Colored 1,071 m., 58 f.); those at the state farm (white 53 m., col. 137 m.) and those on public works (col. 89 m.).

Washington — † 29 (out of 36) counties reporting, few (about 10) in the others.

Ontario — † In County Houses of Industry.

APPENDIX H — Continued.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

JUVENILE INSUBORDINATES.

State.	In Public Institutions.			In Private Institutions.			State.	In Public Institutions.			In Private Institutions		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.		M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Nebraska	194	66	260	220	56	276
Colorado	247	57	304	.....	.....	.....	New Hampshire	110	35	145	.....	18	18
Connecticut	441	280	721	.....	30	30	New Jersey	491	157	648	180	293	473
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	83	36	119	New York	1,140	.....	1,140	2,459	309	2,768
District of Columbia	192	89	281	.....	.....	.....	North Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	51	.....	51	.....	.....	.....	North Dakota	39	2	41	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	603	314	917	.....	†327	327	Ohio	1,370	464	1,834	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	574	239	†813	.....	.....	.....	Oregon	116	.....	116	8	70	†78
Iowa	486	218	704	.....	.....	.....	Pennsylvania	†	.....	.....	1,137	235	†1,372
Kansas	223	178	401	.....	.....	.....	Rhode Island	345	48	393	33	.....	33
Kentucky	495	168	663	.....	.....	.....	Utah	56	19	75	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	103	.....	.....	.....	Vermont	113	32	145	.....	.....	.....
Maine	138	84	†217	.....	.....	.....	Virginia	179	.....	179	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	.....	1,020	550	1,570	Washington	151	34	185	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	†1,034	209	1,243	.....	.....	.....	West Virginia	300	66	366	.....	175	*175
Michigan	709	336	1,045	.....	.....	.....	Wisconsin	304	250	†554	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	272	79	351	.....	.....	.....	Ontario	†	.....	.....	270	60	330
Missouri	786	195	981	.....	.....	.....							

Illinois — † Some private institutions receiving both dependent and delinquent children had their entire population classified in last year's report, as delinquent, although the delinquents were a small proportion of the total. We now classify all as dependent when the classes are not separable.

Indiana — † In addition there are 13 boys and 1 girl serving jail sentence.

Maine — † There are also a few juveniles in state prison.

Massachusetts — † To this number should be added juvenile insubordinates placed out in homes by State Reform School, State Board of Charity and Boston Institutions Trustees as follows: Males 984, females 623 — total 1,607. Of these board is paid for males 300, females 209 — total 509; and free homes were found for males 684, females 414 — total 1,098. Many other cities and towns board out and place in families the same class.

Oregon — † In institutions receiving state aid.

Ontario — † Population of provincial reformatory for girls reduced during the year from 69 to 4. Girls were placed in situations. Provincial reformatory for boys now closed. Boys all placed in situations.

Pennsylvania — † Institutions are private corporations almost wholly supported by the state.

Wisconsin — † Boys committed between ages of 8 and 16, until 21. Girls committed between ages of 8 and 18 until 21.

APPENDIX H — Continued.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES (ADULT).

State.	Aged and Infirm.						Sick and Injured.					
	In Public Inst.			In Private Homes for Aged.			In Public Hospitals.			In Private Hospitals.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
Arkansas	†	.....	‡75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	*1,100	*700	*1,800	.....	.....	*450	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Delaware †	†155	83	‡238	39	100	139	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
District of Columbia	156	89	245	*110	*285	*395	296	241	537	50	45	95
Georgia	*175	*185	*360	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	2,135	858	2,993	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	1,003	385	1,388	280	345	625	75	79	154	166	159	325
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	614	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	†758	338	533	871	.....	.....	430	.....	.....	1,633
Massachusetts	.....	.....	†5,392	.....	.....	*2,600	.....	*	‡800	.....	*	¶2,500
Michigan	*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	433	90	523	533	458	†991	.....	.....	290	.....	.....	‡107
Missouri	.....	.....	2,000	.....	.....	700	.....	.....	430	.....	.....	700
Nebraska	160	90	†250	50	90	140	.....	.....	‡20	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	450	409	†859	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13	17	30
New Jersey †	616	150	766	673	265	938	.....	.....	524	.....	.....	1,003
New York	5,207	3,262	†8,469	2,765	3,552	‡6,317	2,512	1,314	3,826	5,223	5,488	¶10,711
North Carolina	†	.....	1,233	.....	33	33	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
North Dakota	.....	.....	*62	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	4,181	2,281	6,462	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	†55	4	[illegible]	55	54	[illegible]	79	8	87	29	17	46
Oregon †	8,057	5,206	†13,263	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	569	.....	.....	7,973
Pennsylvania												

Rhode Island †	†413	337	750	141	199	340	.....	.....	314	.....	.....	.....
Texas	*300	*450	*750	1	40	41	*200	*300	*500	*75	*100	*175
Utah	664	66	130	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	†	†	†	25	65	90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington	302	65	†367	324	129	453	140	18	158	130	44	174
West Virginia	347	252	599	*5	*12	*17	106	.....	†106	47	52	99
Wisconsin	1,090	421	1,511	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Brunswick	63	66	129	.....	.....	.....	39	32	71	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	.....	.....	†2,846	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,568	.....	.....	.....

NOTES ON DESTITUTES (ADULTS).

Arkansas — † Home for Confederate Veterans supported by state. ‡ County Court may establish Poor Farm or let poor out to private persons. No reports are required.

Delaware — † New Castle County only. ‡ At the last Board meeting of the New Castle Hospital (almshouse) serious consideration was given to require all able bodied inmates to work. Decision will be reached next meeting.

Illinois — † Soldiers' and sailors' and their wives, males, 1,709; females, 73 — total 1,782 not included.

Maryland — † This includes 257 defectives who should be in other institutions.

Massachusetts — † Of this number 1,167 are in the State Hospital (almshouse) and State Farm (pauper inmates). Both pauper inmates and sentenced misdemeanants are at State Farm. ‡ The estimate is for Boston City Hospital only. ¶ Some of these are partly supported by state.

Minnesota — † This includes 216 young women in Rescue Homes, etc. ‡ Hospitals are the only private charitable institutions receiving any public support. There are about 6 such.

Michigan — *No data available.

Nebraska — † Orthopedic Hospital at Lincoln.

New Hampshire — † Also males 116, females 152 — total 268 in Soldiers' Home.

New Jersey — † Statistics are incomplete.

New York — † Also males 2,199, females 125 — total 2,324 in the State Soldiers' Home. ‡ Of these males 390, females 938 — total 1,328 are in institutions receiving partial public support. ¶ Includes males 4,184; females 4,235 — total 8,419 in institutions receiving partial public support.

North Carolina — † Males 126 in Confederate Veterans' Home not included.

North Dakota — * Estimated (seven almshouses in state, one failed to report).

Oregon — † Few of the counties have public hospitals, their poor patients are cared for on contract in private hospitals. Similar methods prevail in counties having no almshouses.

Rhode Island — † Of these males 219, females 216 — total 435 are in the State Almshouse. Some towns board their poor in State Almshouse at a rate not to exceed $3 per week.

Utah — The sick and injured poor are provided for by church organizations. Trained nurses are provided by the Woman's Relief Society. The Jewish ladies and the Catholic church take active part in providing for the sick and injured poor.

Vermont — † There are 99 inmates of the State Soldiers' Home

Washington — † Reports from 23 counties. 7 report no almshouse. 308 of the number reported are in 4 almshouses. All important counties reported.

West Virginia — † The State owns 3 hospitals known as Miners' Hospitals, in the 3 most important coal fields, state paying all expenses. These are well managed and popular.

Pennsylvania — † Of the number in almshouses 5,354 reported as being insane or feeble minded. 221 blind. 84 deaf and dumb. Inmates of State Soldiers' Home, 569, are not included.

Ontario — † In "Refuges."

APPENDIX H — Continued.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DESTITUTES (JUVENILE.)

States.	In Public Institutions for Juveniles.			Private Inst. with Public Support in Whole or Part.			Private Charitable Institutions.			In Almshouses, Etc.			Children Placed Out During Year.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	123	58	181	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	.....	.....	*670	.....	.....	*430	.....	*	600	.....	.....	*100	.....	.....	*375
Delaware	.....	.....	.....	60	63	123	251	46	297	1	2	3	.....	.....	21
District of Columbia	348	135	483	239	146	385	335	340	*675	.....	.....	.....	247	315	562
Georgia	.....	.....	.....	113	44	157	437	526	963	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	†176	122	298	2,951	2,141	‡5,092	.....	.....	.....	72	94	166	.....	.....	.....
Indiana	736	504	1,240	678	313	991	422	323	745	21	11	32	.....	.....	700
Iowa	.....	.....	477	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,066	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	788
Kansas	131	49	†180	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,091	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,940	.....	.....	300	.....	.....	20	.....	.....	144
Massacusetts	.....	.....	†	.....	.....	88	.....	.....	*3,200	.....	.....	152	.....	.....	2,805
Michigan	*137	33	170	†	.....	.....	‡765	510	1,275	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	‡975
Minnesota	149	64	†213	.....	.....	.....	655	601	†1,256	2	1	3	.....	.....	563
Missouri	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	175	.....	.....	3,200	.....	.....	80	.....	.....	250
Nebraska	37	28	65	.....	.....	.....	221	146	367	.....	.....	.....	903	631	†1,534
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	193	142	335	403	409	812	23	18	41	78	52	130
New Jersey †	11	9	20	.....	.....	.....	575	593	1,168	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	337
New York	137	138	275	15,031	12,822	27,853	*1,508	*1,559	*3,067	†20	†25	†45	3,687	1,975	5,662
North Carolina	.....	.....	30	181	195	376	.....	.....	723	.....	.....	†60	.....	.....	141
North Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*39	36	75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	1,750	1,188	2,938	.....	.....	.....	105	85	190	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	94	87	181	13	7	20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	423

Pennsylvania						19,104						413			8	12
Rhode Island			178				380	396	776	6	7	13	4			
Texas	225	375	600				500	1,500	2,000				75	200	275	
Utah							38	51	89							
Vermont						164	132	49	181							
Washington	10	8	18	16	14	30	14	6	†20	28	42	70	45	70	115	
Wisconsin	98	50	158							17	17	34	5	4	9	
New Brunswick	13	25	38													
Ontario			1,913													

NOTES ON JUVENILE DESTITUTES.

Illinois — † Soldiers' Orphans Home. ‡ About 30 institutions with an estimated population of 1,000 children did not report, and are not included. In some of these institutions some of the children belong to the delinquent class, where not separable all are included as dependents.

Kansas — † Soldiers' Orphans Home.

Massachusetts — † No public institutions for dependent children, all are boarded out except 88 in private institutions partially supported by public funds. The number boarded out (April 1, 1905) is given under the heading *"placed out."* Of these 523 are by cities and towns, and 2,282 by state.

Michigan — * In state public school.

† Have none such.

‡ Estimated.

Minnesota — † Add to this number 59 children in the State Hospital for Deformed and Crippled Children. ‡ Add to this 235 Indian children in industrial schools and orphan asylums supported by white benevolence, about 80 being orphans; 90 half orphans, the remainder have good for nothing parents.

Nebraska — † Includes those restored to parents.

New Jersey — † Statistics are incomplete.

New York — † Children under two years old with their mothers.

North Carolina — † Defectives or children too young to leave mothers.

North Dakota — The N. D. Ch. Home Society received 64 children last year for placing.

Washington — † Some of the private institutions receive small subsidies from counties.

APPENDIX H — Continued.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVE ADULTS.

State.	The Insane.												The Epileptic.					
	In State Hospitals and Asylums.			In Municipal and County Hospitals or Asylums.			In Private Institutions for Insane.			In Alms Houses.			In State Institutions for Epileptics and Feeble-Minded.			In Alms Houses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M	F	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	482	277	759	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	1,245	1,328	2,573	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	437	160	125	225	.....	.....	56	.....	.....	*60
Delaware	192	145	337	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†48	1	1	2
Dist. of Columbia	682	628	1,310	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†1	†	†	.....	.....	.....
Georgia	1,201	1,331	2,534	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	180	132	312	.....	.....	.....
Illinois	4,609	4,130	8,739	1,200	1,156	2,356	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	164	130	294
Indiana	1,958	2,111	4,069	88	46	134	20	33	53	276	122	398	497	448	†945	.....	.....	.....
Iowa	2,053	1,626	3,679	408	417	825	205	319	524	.....	.....	.....	*	.....	439	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	1,345	961	2,306	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	228	121	†349	.....	.....	.....
Kentucky	1,804	1,417	3,221	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Louisiana	.....	.....	1,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†	.....	.....	.....
Maine	536	431	967	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Maryland	695	526	1,221	156	177	333	312	497	809	248	358	606	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	4,409	4,554	8,963	318	374	692	93	152	245	12	241	†253	378	‡315	¶693	9	4	13
Michigan	2,823	2,343	5,166	.....	.....	512	353	20	373	.....	.....	.....	*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Minnesota	2,342	1,731	4,073	.....	.....	†2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†5	92	107	†199	.....	.....	.....
Missouri	2,004	1,625	3,629	374	247	621	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	901	133	235	†368	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	966	761	1,727	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	335	313	648	80	195	275	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	7	23	28	32	60
New Jersey	.....	.....	2,837	.....	.....	2,220	29	150	179	10	30	40	.....	.....	166	.....	.....	†6
New York	12,091	13,611	25,702	.....	.....	.....	359	602	961	.....	.....	.....	575	475	1,050	109	90	199
North Carolina	867	1,162	2,029	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	80	129	209	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
North Dakota	306	164	470	6	6	12	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*22	17	39	.....	.....	.....

Ohio	4,999	4,521	9,520								120	103	223	616	493	1,109	102	77	179
Oregon	921	430	1,351				80	20	100										
Pennsylvania	4,025	3,417	7,442				277	446	723			†4,000					16	24	†40
Rhode Island	516	478	994				74	89	163										
Texas	*1,430	*1,455	*2,885																
Utah	179	191	370																
Vermont	286	250	536				†358	†270	†628										
Virginia	1,563	1,597	†3,160								7		7						
Washington	925	452	1,377																
West Virginia	706	684	1,390																
Wisconsin	915	691	1,606	2,311	1,779	4,090										†			
Ontario	2,807	3,027	5,834																

NOTES ON DEFECTIVES (ADULTS).

Delaware — † Wards in institutions in other states.

District of Columbia — † Epileptics are enumerated with insane.

Indiana — † This is the total number of epileptics in institutions, viz.: State Hospitals for Insane, the School for Feebleminded and the county poor asylums, on August 31, 1905. Land has been purchased for the new Village for Epileptics, work on the buildings will begin this summer and a few inmates will be received in the fall by utilizing existing buildings.

Iowa — Epileptics 227 in Hospital for Insane; 212 in Institution for Feeble Minded.

Kansas — † These are in the State Hospital for Epileptics.

Louisiana — †Epileptics as far as cared for are with the insane.

Maryland — † No provision for epileptics except with the insane and one small private institution.

Massachusetts — † Boarded out in families under supervision of the State Board of Lunacy. ‡ This includes 358 epileptic insane. ¶ Of these 521 are in the State Institution for Epileptics and 172 in the Institution for Feeble Minded.

Missouri — † Epileptics and feeble minded are in one institution designed for both classes.

Michigan — * With F. M.

Minnesota — † The 2 insane in county hospital are detained for medical examination. Those in almshouses are in transit to state hospitals.

New Jersey — † Stewards in almshouses do not know the difference between "Insane" and "Feebleminded."

North Dakota — * In Institution for Feeble Minded.

Oregon — † See under Feeble Minded.

Rhode Island — † These are in the State almshouse.

Vermont — † Of these M. 146, F. 102, T. 248, are maintained at state expense.

Virginia — † Three state hospitals for whites, 1 for colored insane; all the insane are in the care of the state; none are in jails or poorhouses.

Ontario — † At present epileptics are with the insane. A colony at Woodstock is nearly ready for occupancy.

Pennsylvania — † See note to Almshouses in statistics for destitutes.

APPENDIX H — Concluded.

STATISTICS OF INSTITUTION INMATES.

DEFECTIVES.

State.	Idiots and Feeble Minded.						Blind.									Deaf Mutes.					
	In State Institutions.			In Alms Houses.			In State Schools			In Working Homes for Blind.			In Alms Houses.			In State Schools.			In Alms Houses.		
	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.	M.	F.	T.
California	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	....	....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	84	66	150	....	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	†	....	....	†
Connecticut	.....	.....	195	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	....	....	15	....	....	.....	.....	.....	200	....	....	....
Delaware	5	4	9	7	12	19	.....	.....	†4	....	....	....	2	3	5	.....	.....	†14	1	....	1
Dist. of Columbia	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43	....	....	....	....	....	.....	17	17	34	....	....	....
Georgia	57	38	95	....	.....	.....	98	22	120	....	....	....	....	....	.....	150	36	196	....	....	....
Illinois	843	639	1,482	280	300	580	131	77	208	55	19	74	92	43	135	277	158	435	30	12	42
Indiana	471	565	†1,036	490	428	†918	59	76	135	20	.....	20	117	53	170	174	149	323	39	36	75
Iowa	*565	473	1,038	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	165	....	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	254	....	....	....
Kansas	.....	.....	355	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	....	....	....	....	....	.....	.....	.....	230	....	....	....
Kentucky	110	75	†185	....	.....	.....	54	66	120	....	....	....	....	....	.....	194	164	358	....	....	....
Louisiana	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40	....	....	....	....	....	.....	79	61	140	....	....	....
Maine	6	4	†10	....	.....	.....	13	13	†26	....	....	....	....	....	.....	56	41	97	....	....	....
Maryland	102	98	200	45	25	70	65	55	120	....	....	....	....	....	.....	68	48	116	....	....	....
Massachusetts	624	419	†1,043	116	110	226	.....	.....	‡*256	....	....	....	....	....	*62	.....	* ¶	400	....	....	....
Michigan	*338	278	616	....	.....	.....	60	55	115	41	9	50	....	....	.....	189	148	337	....	....	....
Minnesota	427	373	800	....	.....	†20	53	32	85	....	....	....	....	....	‡15	153	130	283	....	....	....
Missouri	.....	.....	†	....	.....	.....	45	50	95	....	.....	50	....	....	114	217	139	356	....	....	....
Nebraska	205	150	355	....	.....	.....	35	23	58	....	.....	....	....	....	....	107	84	191	....	....	....
New Hampshire	39	37	76	102	125	227	13	11	†24	....	.....	....	2	2	4	16	14	†30	....	2	2
New Jersey	144	287	431	49	9	58	.....	.....	85	....	.....	65	17	3	20	16	8	24	15	8	23

New York	748	1,110	1,858	846	659	1,505	151	112	†263	79	48	127	209	167	376	895	769	†1,664	56	40	96
North Carolina	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	435	143	150	293	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	140	124	264	.....	..	.....
North Dakota	*57	38	95	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	747	577	1,324	310	233	543	163	112	275	.....	.....	.....	97	67	164	279	228	507	36	28	64
Oregon	25	15	†40	5	3	8	20	15	35	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	35	36	71	3	2	5
Pennsylvania	1,154	862	2,016	.....	.....	.....	155	154	309	60	60	120	.....	.....	221	468	391	859	.....	.....	84
Rhode Island	20	30	†50	13	13	26	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	2	37	26	63	.....	.....	.....
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*100	*150	*250	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	*200	*300	*500	.....	.....	.....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	..	.....	8	10	18	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	56	34	90	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	.....	.....	†16	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†10	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	†20	.....	..	.....
Virginia	.....	.....	.....	..	.....	.....	31	41	72	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	81	77	158	.....	.....	.....
Washington	20	11	31	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
West Virginia	208	†140	348	23	31	54	33	23	56	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	97	73	170	.....	.....	.....
Wisconsin	373	313	686	.....	.....	.....	53	36	89	31	.....	.....	31	.....	.....	111	78	190	.....	.....	.....
Ontario	372	570	742	...	.....	.....	62	55	107	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	147	141	288	.....	.....	.....

NOTES ON DEFECTIVES.

Colorado — † Deaf mutes with blind in one institution.

Delaware — † Wards in other states, no institution in Delaware.

Indiana — † Including epileptics, see note on Epileptics.

Iowa — * Including Epileptics (*see Epileptics*).

Kentucky — † Feeble minded only. Idiots are supported by state in their own homes or in almshouses.

Maine — † No State Institution for Feeble Minded or Blind; those enumerated are supported by the state in institutions outside the state.

Massachusetts — † There are also 62 feeble minded in private institutions. ‡ Including 106 blind persons receiving instruction in their homes. ¶ Estimated number in state and private schools.

Michigan — * Including epileptics.

Minnesota — † The idiots in almshouses are senile and belong there. ‡ The blind in almshouses are senile and belong there.

Missouri — † See epileptics (one institution).

New Hampshire — † Supported in institutions in other states.

New York — † Of these 145 are in private schools with state support. ‡ New York has no state school for deaf. The statistics represent pupils in private institutions supported largely by public funds.

North Dakota — * Including Epileptics (*see Epileptics*).

Oregon — † In hospitals for insane figures estimated.

Rhode Island — † In state almshouse number estimated.

Vermont — † Supported in institutions outside state. Annual appropriation for purpose $20,000.00.

West Virginia — † Including epileptics.

ROBERT J. HOGUET, TREAS., IN ACCOUNT WITH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Receipts.

1905.					
July	22	To cash from	Secretary	$1,220 45	
Sept.	16	"	"	471 25	
Nov.	1	"	"	249 45	
	1	"	ex-Treasurer	287 73	
	15	"	Secretary	103 60	
Oct.	16	"	"	276 31	
Nov.	30	"	"	52 25	
1906.					
Jan.	2	"	"	88 75	
	31	"	"	713 45	
Feb.	8	"	"	871 15	
	21	"	"	806 65	
Mar.	1	"	"	272 40	
	13	"	"	546 95	
	28	"	"	357 20	
April	18	"	"	853 70	
	30	"	"	419 80	
					$7,591 09

Disbursements.

1905.				
Aug.	1	By voucher	26	$143 50
		"	27	642 89
		"	28	150 50
		"	29	170 80
Sept.	20	"	30	423 88
		"	31	165 53
Nov.	1	"	32	246 67
Dec.	2	"	33	187 57
1906.				
Jan.	2	"	34	158 24
Feb.	1	"	35	309 21
	1	"	36	572 34
Mar.	1	"	37	273 54
	31	"	38	1,507 33
	31	"	39	334 34
May	1	"	40	476 33
	1	"	41	278 28
		Balance on hand		1,550 14
				$7,591 09

Audited and found correct.

HUGH F. FOX,
RUTHERFORD H. PLATT,
Auditing Committee.

SECRETARY'S FINANCIAL STATEMENT, 1905–1906.

(Ten months, July 1, 1905, to May 1, 1906.)

Dr.

1905.		*Receipts.*			
July 1	To cash on hand			$287 73	
to	To contributions			1,221 93	
1906.	To sales of Proceedings			795 81	
May 1	To sales of Bulletin			50	
	To sales of Reprints			17 00	
	To sales of Index			4 50	
	To sales of Badges			64 75	
	To exchange			11 40	
	To members, Active—				
	For 1903	$17 50			
	For 1904	55 00			
	For 1905	1,074 95			
	For 1906	2,092 50			
	For 1907	7 50			
			$3,247 50		
	To members, sustaining—				
	For 1904	$10 00			
	For 1905	110 00			
	For 1906	1,820 00			
			$1,940 00		
	Total membership receipts			5,187 50	
					$7,591 09

Disbursements.

				Cr.
1905				
July 1	By Proceedings 1904 (balance due)			$416 06
	By Proceedings purchased			10 72
1906.	By Proceedings 1905—			
	Printer	$1,507 33		
	Reporting	150 00		
	Plates	17 00		
	Distributing	322 18		
			1,996 51	
	By Bulletin (5 issues)			744 43
	By Reprints			32 69
	By Salaries, Secretary	$833 31		
	Clerk	270 00		
	Extra help	45 45		
			1,148 76	
	Traveling expenses Secretary	$252 01		
	President	83 90		
			335 91	
	Badges			95 55
	Office furniture			60 36
	Printing and stationery			301 29
	Postage			278 35
	Office rent (7 months)			105 00
	Insurance			15 50
	Bank Collection Exchange			5 86
	Telegraphing			15 06
	Express and freight			130 90
	Expenses Conference 1905—			
	President's expenses	$40 00		
	Preacher	103 50		
	Advertising	24 00		
	Clerk	30 00		
	Programs	150 50		
			348 00	
	Treasurers' balance		1,550 14	
				$7,591 09

I certify that the above account is correct.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
General Secretary.

Philadelphia, Pa., May 10, 1906.

This certifies that the accounts of the Treasurer and Secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction have been audited by us this day and found to be correct and properly vouchered.

HUGH F. FOX,
RUTHERFORD H. PLATT,
Auditing Committee

LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

(Revised to September 1, 1906.)

N. B. — Sustaining Members marked with *.

ALABAMA.

Allen, B. M., 1922 Third Ave, Birmingham.
Harrison, Gladden, 706 Madison Ave, Montgomery.
Johnson, J. H., Ala. School for Deaf, Talladega.
Searcy, Dr. J. T., Supt. Insane Hospital, Tuscaloosa.
Tutwiler, Miss Julia S., Livingston.

ARIZONA.

Shields, Rev. Harvey M., Ph. D., Bisbee.

ARKANSAS.

Reynolds, Prof. J. H., Fayetteville.

CALIFORNIA.

Associated Charities, 1265 Franklin St, Oakland.
Brewer, Miss Anne W., 578 13th St., Oakland.
Bridge, Dr. Norman, 217 So. Broadway, Los Angeles.
Brown, Julius A., 2317 W. 9th St., Los Angeles.
Burdette, Mrs. Clara B., Pasadena.
Conaty, Rt. Rev. Thos. J., Bishop of Los Angeles, Los Angeles.
Cushing, Mrs. John M., 920 Linden St., Oakland.
Dawson, Dr. Wm. J. G., Medical Supt. Home for F. M., Eldridge.
Fitch, Miss Virginia, 723 Irwin St., San Rafael.
Fowler, Miss Margaret B., 363 Grove St., Pasadena.
Golsh Miss Flora, 101 N. Broadway, Los Angeles.
Greeley, J. P., Supt. Whittier State School, Whittier.
Grippen, Miss Mary E., Whittier State School, Whittier.
Hallidie, Mrs. A. S., 2635 Channing Way, Berkeley.
Hatch, F. W., Gen. Supt. State Hospitals, Sacramento.
Hoisholt, Dr. Andrew W., Stockton.
Lindley, Dr. Walter, 1414 S. Hope St., Los Angeles.
McGraw, Miss Elva B., 945 Chestnut St., Oakland.
McLean, Miss Fannie, 580 20th St., Oakland.
McLean, Rev. J. K., Berkeley.
Moore, E. C., Supt. Pub. Schools, Los Angeles.
Murphy, Mrs. W. W., 1342 S. Union Ave., Los Angeles.
Pardee, Hon. George C., Sacramento.
Patterson, Hon. W. C., First National Bank, Los Angeles.
Peixotto, Miss Jessica B, Univ. of Calif., Berkeley.
Pendleton, Miss Helen, Webster St., Oakland.
Pillsbury, A. J., Sacramento.
Randall, Wm. T., Supt. Preston School of Industry, Waterman.
Robinson, C. J., McKinley Ind. Home, Los Angeles.
Smith, Mrs. Mary Roberts, 1148 Bryant St., Palo Alto.
Sterling, Mrs. E. C., Crescent Ave., Redlands.
Stocking, Dr. Leonard, Med. Supt. Agnew State Hospital, Agnew.
Stone, Dr. Elmer E., Supt. Napa St. Hospital, Napa.
Taylor, James P., 459 12th St., Oakland.
Whitney, Miss C. A., Sec. Associated Charities, 808 Broadway, Oakland.

San Francisco.

Associated Charities, (temporary address) 1308 Webster St., Oakland.
*Banning, B. R., 305 Larkin St.
Cushing, O. K., 104 Sutter St.
Davis, Hon. A. M., The Emporium
Davis, Horace, 133 Spear St.
Eaves, Miss Lucile, Headworker South Park Settlement, 86 South Park.
Felton, Miss Katherine C., 1308 Webster St., Oakland (temporarily).
Gates, W. A., Sec. Board of State Charities, 2108 Shattuck Ave., Berkeley
Fisk, Rev. H. A., 712 Greenwich St.
Levy, Meyer H., 436 O'Farrell St.
Lewis, Herbert W., Supt Boys' and Girls' Aid Soc., Baker and Grove Sts.
Moore, Prof. E. C., 1227 Washington St.
Putnam, Osgood, 401 California St.
Ramm, Rev. Chas. A., 1100 Franklin St.
Symmes, Frank J., 42 Montgomery St.
Turner, George C., Baker and Grove Sts.
Wheelan, F. H., 224 Calif. St.

COLORADO.

Boal, Mrs. George J., 1655 Sherman Ave., Denver.
Caspar, Mrs. Stanley M., Vice Pres. St. Board of Charities and Correction, 1241 Gaylor St., Denver.

* Sustaining members.

Dennis, Jos. Jr., Golden.
Evans-Carrington, Rev. E., 227 E. Cucharra St., Colorado Springs.
Friedmann, Rabbi W. S., Denver.
George, Mrs. S. Izetta, Sec. C. O. S., 1420 Champa St., Denver.
Gregory, Ida L., Probation Officer, 1032 14th St., Denver.
Hagar, Clarence E., State Capitol, Denver.
Lawney, Dr. Eleanor, Vice Pres. Bd. of St. Charities, Denver.
Library of University of Colorado, Boulder.
Lindsey, Judge Ben B., Denver.
McDonald, Mrs. W. H., Sec. Asso. Charities, 304 N. Main St., Pueblo.
Malone, Rev. T. H., Mem Bd. of St. Char., Denver.
Muller, Alfred, Denver.
Paddelford, Fred L., Supt. St. Indus. School for Boys, Golden.
Pershing, J. H., 404 Equitable Bldg., Denver.
Pisko, Mrs. Seraphine, Pres. Council of Jewish Women, 1220 Corona St., Denver.
Rudolph, Rev. Walter S., Supt. Children's Home Soc., Harris, Adams Co.
Slocum, William F., 24 College Place, Colo. College, Colorado Springs.
St. Home for Dependent Children, 2309 S. Clarkson St., Denver
Storrs, O. S., Chairman Co. Bd. Char. and Corr., Denver.
Thomas, Wm., Breckenridge.
Van Kleek, Mrs. Henry, 1269 Logan Ave., Denver.
Williams, Mrs. Harriet E., 2205 12th St., Boulder.
Woman's Club of Denver, 1620 Stout St., Denver.
Wright, Mrs. J. P., Detention School, 2844 Dowing Ave., Denver.

CONNECTICUT.

Averill, Mrs. John C., 160 Broadway, Norwich.
Bridgman, H. H., Norfolk
Buel, Dr. John L., Litchfield.
Case, Dwight S., Supt. The Wm. L. Gilbert Home, Winsted.
Fairbank, W. G., Middletown.
Fairbank, Mrs. W. G., Middletown.
Fisher, Prof. Willard. Middletown.
Fuller, Edward A., Suffield.
Fuller, Mrs. Edward D., Vice Pres. United Workers, 263 Broadway, Norwich.
Gay, Hon. Henry, Winsted.
Gilman, Miss Emily S., 380 Washington St., Norwich.
Glover, Mrs. Emily H., Fairfield.
Hallock, Dr. F. K., Cromwell.
Hetrick, Mrs. A. J., 9 Washington St., Norwich.
*Hillard, Miss Mary R., St. Margaret's, Waterbury.
Johnson, L. S., New Britain.
*Kellogg, Chas. P., Sec. St. Board of Charities, Waterbury.
Knight, Dr. George H., Lakeville.
Knight, Mrs George H., Lakeville.
Merritt, Charles H,. Danbury.
Mitchell, Mrs. Frank A., 208 W. Thames St., Norwich.
Noble, Dr. Henry S., Middletown.
*Platt, F G., 32 Grove Hill, New Britain.
Pope, Miss Theodate, Farmington.
Shanley, Rev. Walter J., Danbury.
Woodruff, George M., Litchfield.

Hartford.

Bunce, Jonathan B., 61 Edwards St.
Down, Dr. Edwin A., 2 State St.
Ferguson, Mrs. Henry, 123 Vernon St.
Green, David I., Supt. C. O. S., 133 Trumbull St
Griswold Miss Josephine M., Sec. Aid Soc., Brown & Thompson Bldg.
*Hall, Miss Mary, 98 Pratt St.
Holcomb, Miss Elizabeth A., Ch. Aid Soc., Cheney Bldg.
Howe, Dr. H. G., 137 High St.
Huntington, Rev. J. T., 17 Clinton St.
Jackson, Rev. John H., Supt. Open Hearth Assn, 73 Grove St.
Kane, Thos F., 69 Washington St.
Merriam, Prof. Alex. R., 314 Collins St.
Morse, J. Howard, 222 Pearl St.
Rossiter, Irmagarde, 105 Clark St.
Stillman, W. W., Supt. Pub. Char., 222 Pearl St.
Thompson, Whitefield N., Hartford Retreat.

New Haven.

Bacon, Miss Rebekah G., 307 Crown St.
Brewer, Prof. Wm. H., 418 Orange St.
Brown, Robert, Observatory Place.
Corcoran, Rev. John F., St. Francis Orphan Asylum.
*Farnam, Prof. Henry W., 43 Hillhouse Ave.
Fisher, Prof. Irving, 460 Prospect St.
Newton, Henry G., 818 Chapel St.
Porter, Joseph, 215 Whitney Ave.
Preston, Sherwood O., 200 Orange St.
Sheldon, Charles A.
Stokes, Rev. Anson Phelps Jr., Elm St., Yale Univ.
Welch, Pierce N.,

DELAWARE.

Associated Charities, 602 West St., Wilmington
*Bancroft, Wm. P., Wilmington.
Blackburn, B. Frank, Supt. New Castle Co. Hospital, Farnhurst.
Henry, Dr. C., Newark.
Jackson, Mrs. Emma, 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Jackson, Henry M., 2400 Market St., Wilmington.
Meserve, A. S., Wilmington.
Meserve, Bertha W., Wilmington.
Summer, Miss Elizabeth, 602 West St., Wilmington.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., 1202 Delaware Ave, Wilmington.
Weaver, Jennie M., W. End Reading Rm., Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Associated Charities, 811 G. St., N. W.
*Baldwin, Wm. H., Stoneleigh Court.
Cook, Miss Susan B., 607 Howard Ave., N. W.
Cook, George Wm., Howard Univ.
Crosby, Frances S., 925 N. St., N. W.
Curry Miss H. Ida, 605 4½ St., S. W.

* Sustaining members.

Darnall, O. E., Supt. Reform School, Bladensburg Rd.
DeLacy, William H., Judge Juv. Ct.
Department of Commerce and Labor, 15th and New York Ave.
Douglass, John W., Agt. Bd. of Ch. Guardians, 1705 35th St.
Downey, W. F., 1013 17th St., N. W.
Edson, John Joy, 9th and F Sts.
Evermann, Mrs. Barton W., 412 T. St., N. W.
Fernandis, Mrs. Sarah Collins, Hd. Res. College Soc. Settlement, 118 M. St., S. W.
Gilfillan, Ed. S., 1243 H. St., N. E.
Green, Miss Ida A., 811 G. St., N. W.
Hatch, Wallace, 805 G. St., N. W.
Jackson, Rev. Sheldon, D. D., U. S. Bur. of Education.
Janney, B T., 1671 31st St.
Kemp, James E., 811 G. St., N. W.
*Kibbey, Miss Bessie, 2025 Mass. Ave.
McCurdy, Miss M. V., 944 Westminster St.
MacFarland, Henry B. F., 1816 F. St., N. W.
MacFarland, Mrs. H. B. F., 1816 F. St., N. W.
Maguire, Rev. Joseph I., 9 9th St., N. E.
Neill, Charles P., Catholic University.
Pellew, Henry E., 1637 Mass. Ave.
Prescott Annie M., 1111 E. Capitol St.
Rudolph, Cuno H., 1332 New York Ave.
Rugg, Mrs. Mary C., 1737 Willard St., N. W.
Ryan, Miss Amelia A., 1243 H. St., N. E.
Skinner, C. W., Supt. Indus. Home Sch., 2575 Wis. Ave.
Southworth, Miss Inez M., Eastern Agt. Asst. Char., 319 Pa. Ave., S. E.
Sylvester, Richard, 1223 Roanoke St.
Truesdell, Col. George, Wyatt Bldg.
Van Trump, Miss Clara Jessup, 456 N. St., S. W.
Weller, Chas. F., Gen. Sec. A. C., 811 G. St., N. W.
Weller, Mrs. Eugenia W., Hd. Res. Neighborhood House, 456 N. St., S. W.
Wilson, G. S., Sec. Board of Charities, District Bldg.
Woodward, S. W., 2015 Wyoming Ave.
Zinkhan, Louis F., Supt. Washington Asylum.
Zinkhan, Mrs. L. F., 19th and C. Sts., S. E.

FLORIDA.

Kooker, Miss Ida Griffin, Jacksonville Woman's Club, Box 174, Jacksonville.

GEORGIA.

Campbell, Dr. M. S., 171 Gordon St., Atlanta.
Crumley, Rev. H. L., 225 Gordon St., Atlanta.
Evans, Thomas, City Warden, Atlanta.
Gloer, J. M., Police Headquarters, Atlanta.
*Gunn, J. R., Ga. Indus. Home, Macon.
Harrison, Miss Fanneal, Assoc. Char., 209 Gould Bldg., Atlanta.
Kriegshaber V. H., Pres. Federation of Jewish Char., Atlanta.
Logan, Joseph C., Sec. Asso. Char., 209 Gould Bldg., Atlanta.
Longino, Dr. T. D., 723 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
McKelway, A. J., 604 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
McNab, Mrs. Laura J., Assoc. Char., 209 Gould Bldg., Atlanta.
Marx, David, 497 Washington St., Atlanta.
Philips, E., Columbus.
White, W. Woods, 609 Anstell Bldg., Atlanta.

HAWAII.

Bergen, Mrs. Edith F., Man. Asso. Char., Honolulu.
Whitney, Mrs. J. M., Sec. Asso. Char., Honolulu.

ILLINOIS.

*Amigh, Mrs. Ophelia L., Geneva.
Associated Charities, Springfield.
Athon, Dr. W. L., Supt. Southern Hosp. for Insane, Anna.
Babb, C. D., Pres. Ill. School for the Blind, Homer.
Bennett, Dr. R. F., Anna.
Bourland, Mrs. Clara P., 1301 Knoxville Rd., Peoria.
Bourland, Mrs. Ogden P., 308 Grove St., Pontiac.
Bureau of Assoc. Char., 320 N. Main St., Bloomington.
Charity Council of Aurora, Aurora.
Charlton, Mrs. George J., Oak Park.
Corbus, J. C., Supt. Eastern Hosp. for Insane, Hospital.
Cosper, Walter L., Gen. Sec. Assoc. Char., 104 City Hall., Peoria.
Davis, Henry., Pres. Home for the Friendless and Assoc. Char., Springfield.
Dudley, Oscar L., Glenwood.
Ellis, Miss Martha E., 2707 Main St., Quincy.
Fairbrother, Dr. H. C., E. St. Louis.
Fesler, Mrs. James C., Rochelle.
Freeman, Joseph H., Supt. School for Blind, Jacksonville.
Freeman, Mrs. J. H., Ill. School for Blind, Jacksonville.
Gillett, Charles R., Supt. Ill. School for Deaf, Jacksonville.
Glenn, Dr. J. A., Ashland.
Graves, William C., Sec. Bd. of State Commissioners of Pub. Char., 908 So. 2nd St., Springfield.
Hart, C. W., Supt. St. Charles Sch. for Boys, St. Charles.
Hart, Mrs. Hastings H., Oak Park.
Houghteling, Mrs. J. L., Winnetka.
Jayne, Dr. William, Springfield.
Kingsley, Mrs. B. C., 1400 Judson Ave., Evanston.
Lathrop, Miss Julia C., Rockford.
Lathrop, Mrs. Wm., Rockford.
McAnally, J. C., Mem. St. Board of Pub. Char., Carbondale.
McCauley, Mrs. R. N. Matron Sol. Orphan Home, Normal
McMenamin, Mrs. R., Fort Sheridan.
Mallory, M. M., Gen. Supt. Ill. St. Reformatory, Pontiac.
Miller, Mrs. Flo. Jamson, Supt. Soldiers' Widows' Home, Wilmington.
Miller, Rev. M. J., Geneseo.
Moore, Ensley, 856 W. State St., Jacksonville.
Nineteenth Century Club, Oak Park.
Smith, W. H. C., M. D., Beverly Farm School, Godfrey.

* Sustaining members.

Smith, Mrs. W. H. C., Beverly Farm School, Godfrey.
Somerville, William, Supt. Sol. & Sail. Home, Quincy.
Songer, Dr. Walter E., Supt. Asylum for Insane Criminals, Menard.
Sprigg, Mrs. J. N., 1654 Jersey St., Quincy.
Talcott, Mrs. Wm. A., 839 N. Main St., Rockford.
Virden, Charles, State House, Springfield.
Wemple, F. H., Waverly.
Whipp, Frank D., State House, Springfield.
Whittemore, Henry C., Sycamore.
Wilson, Miss Kate, Virginia, Cass Co.

Chicago.

*Adams, Mrs. Geo. E., 530 Belden Ave.
Baldwin, Abraham, 218 La Salle St.
Bicknell, Ernest P., Gen. Supt. Chi. Bureau of Char., 79 Dearborn St.
Bixby, Col. W. H., Federal Bldg.
*Blaine, Mrs. Emmons, 344 E. Erie St.
Boyle, Edward, 218 LaSalle St.
Bowman, Mrs. C. S., 181 W. Madison St.
Bureau of Personal Service, 4634 Drexel Boul.
Butler, Edward B., 3408 Michigan Ave.
Carman, G. N., Pres. W. S. Dist. Bur. of Char., Lewis Inst.
Carnes, W. W., Supt. Ill. Indus. Home for Blind, 851 Marshall Boul.
*Carpenter, Mrs. A. A. Jr., 1708 Prairie Ave.
Chicago Woman's Club, Fine Arts Bldg.
Clark, James L., Man. Juv. Court Record, 636 Unity Bldg.
Cushing, Charles H., 7044 Yale Ave.
Davies, Edgar T., 188 E. Madison St.
Donaldson, Mrs. L. J., Asst. Supt. Ill. Chi. Home & Aid Soc., 601 Unity Bldg.
Doud, Mrs. L. B., 3257 Mich. Ave.
Fallows, Rt. Rev. Samuel, 967 W. Monroe St.
Frank, Henry L., 1608 Prairie Ave.
Fulmer, Miss Harriet, Supt. Visiting Nurse Assn., 79 Dearborn St.
Garrard, Chas. T., 227 W. Adams St.
Hamlin, Mrs. Laura A., Hull House, 335 S. Halstead.
*Hart, Hastings H., 601 Unity Bldg.
Henderson, Prof. C. R., Univ. of Chicago.
Hirsch, Rabbi Emil G., 3612 Grand Boul.
Howe, Mrs. F. J., 1922 Barry Ave.
Hurley, Timothy D., 3831 Forest Ave.
*Jewish Training School of Chicago, Judd and Clinton Sts.
Kelly, Rev. Ed. A., 4515 Fifth Ave.
Kingsley, Sherman C., Supt. Chi. Relief and Aid Soc., 51 La Salle St.
Knowlton, Miss Margaret J., Prob. Off., 4316 Calumet Ave.
Lamson, S. W., 6 Board of Trade.
Legal Aid Soc. of Chicago, 640 Unity Bldg.
Lies, Eugene T., 644 Unity Bldg.
Loeb, Leo A., 159 La Salle St.
Lynch, A. M., House of Correction.
McCormack, Harry, Dir. Outdoor Relief, Cook Co., 168 S. Clinton St.
*MacVeagh, Franklin, 29 Wabash Ave.
Mack, Hon. Julian W., Judge Circuit Court.
Maxwell, George H., 1405 Fisher Bldg.
Montgomery, Mrs. Frank Hugh, 5548 Woodlawn Ave.
Moulton, Mrs. George M., 2119 Calumet Ave.
Page, Rev. Herman, 5036 Washington Ave.
Parks, Mrs. Evelyn A., Prob. Officer, 6207 Greenwood Ave.
Petterson, C. A., 2396 Lowell Ave.
Robins, Mrs. Raymond, Noble and Angus Sts.
Robins, Raymond, Noble and Angus Sts.
Rosenthal, Julius, Fort Dearborn Bldg.
Sears, Miss Amelia, 71 Park Ave.
Shortall, John G., 100 Washington St.
Solomon, Mrs. Henry, Pres. Council of Jewish Women, 4406 Mich. Ave.
Stolz, Rabbi Joseph, 157 42d Place.
Sturges, Miss Marion D., 107 Lincoln Park Blvd.
Sulzberger, S. L., Peoria and Van Buren St.
Taylor, Prof. Graham, 180 Grand Ave.
Thurston, Henry W., Ch. Prob. Officer Juv. Ct., 7233 Harvard Ave.
Turner, Lillia E., Supt. Chi. Nursery, etc., 175 Burling St.
Van Nostrand, Miss Myra B., Supt. Cent. Dist. Bur. of Char., 1500 Wabash Ave.
Ward, Edith G., 79 Dearborn St.
Webster, Dr. Geo. W., 70 State St.
*Weissenbach, Joseph, 1006 Tribune Bldg.
Whitehead, Miss Helen, 79 Dearborn St.

INDIANA.

Alden, Ernest G., Rose Orphan Asylum, Terre Haute.
Associated Charities, Evansville.
Associated Charities, South Bend.
Ball, Wm. C., 1138 S. 5th St., Terre Haute.
Bartholomew, V. W., 619 Franklin St., Michigan City.
Beck, Mrs. L. M., Bloomington.
Breed, R. E. Marion.
Brown, Prof. D. C., Irvington.
Charman, A. R., 731 S. 7th St., Terre Haute.
Cooper, William P., 133 E. Berry St., Fort Wayne.
Cunningham, Dr. S. R., State Soldier's Home, Lafayette.
Davis, Sydney B., Grand Opera House Block, Terre Haute.
Eddinger, Chas. F., Supt. Poor Asylum, Brownstown.
Ellison, Hon. T. E., Fort Wayne.
Graham, A. H., Knightstown.
Hale, S. W., Geneva.
Hall, Mrs. Ella E., Associated Charities, South Bend.
Hathaway, Miss Sarah, Supt. Mishawaka Orph. Asylum, Mishawaka.
Herz, A., Terre Haute.
Hughes, Marshel, Court House, South Bend.
Iglehart, Eugene H., 1239 1st St. Evansville.
Knollenberg, George H., 809 Main St., Richmond.
Lancaster, Mrs. S. A., Indus. School for Girls, Lafayette.
Lehmann, Carrie A., 107 N. Grant Ave., Crawfordsville.
Lewis, Mrs. Mary Smith, Greensburg.

* Sustaining members.

Lineinger, Alfred S., Danville.
McDowell, Miss Effie, Plainfield.
Metz, Miss Lydia, 101 E. Pa. St., Evansville.
*Nelson, Mrs. John P., 627 Market St., Logansport.
Nicholson, Timothy, Richmond.
Pace, Mrs. Fanny B., I. S. F. M. Y., Ft Wayne.
Palmateer, Mrs. A. E., 914 Chestnut St., Terre Haute.
Porter, Miss Louise H., Michigan City.
Rarick, L. L., Supt. Poor Asylum, Warsaw.
Reid, James D., Warden St. Prison, Michigan City.
Rein, Miss Carrie, Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., South Bend.
*Rice, E. S., 415 Market St., Logansport.
Robinson, Miss Elenora H., Sec. Co. Bd. of Char., Richmond.
Sigmund, Wm. S., 1025 Chestnut St., Columbus.
Smith, Dr. S. E., Supt. East. Hosp. for Insane, Richmond.
Stouder, Mrs. Nellie M., Sec. Children's Home Assn., 711 E. Main St., Muncie.
Whittaker, Will H., Supt. Reformatory, Jeffersonville.
Work, Mrs. Julia E., Supt. Training School, Brightside, Plymouth.
York, E. E., Plainfield.

Indianapolis.

Butler, Amos W., Sec. State Board of Charities, State House.
Carmichael, Miss Mary, 52 State House.
*Day, Thomas C., 805-812 Law Bldg.
Denny, Caleb S., 1221 N. Penna St.
Eckhouse, Mrs. Emma, 400 N. Delaware St.
Elam, Mrs. John B., 1320 Park Ave.
Elder, John R., 1227 N. Penn. St.
Francis, Joseph M., 1549 Central Ave.
Gavisk, Rev. Francis H., 126 Georgia St., W.
Greely, Miss Laura, State House.
Grout, C. S., Gen. Sec. C. O. S., 306 N. Dela., St.
Hanly, Hon. J. Frank, Governor.
Harcourt, A. H., R. R. No. 19.
Henry, Miss E. F. H., 41 Central Trust Bldg.
Hiser, Perry N., 52 State House.
*Johnson, Alexander, 2139 No. Penna. St.
Kellogg, Rev. H. W., 1414 N. New Jersey St.
McCoy, Mrs. Ella B., 30 E. Pratt St.
*Martens, Herman E., 5801 E. Washington St.
Mendenhall, Pearson, 1614 Ludlow Ave.
Noble, Miss Sue B., 1714 E. 12th St.
Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., 312 E. North St.
Rexford, Mrs. Carrie Goodwin, 1220 College Ave.
Rhodes, Miss Emily E., Randolph and Michigan Sts.
Robertson, H. E., 321 Hamilton Ave.
Runnels, Mrs. O. S., 1100 N. Meridian St.
Smith, Mark A., 706 N. Sheffield Ave.
Spink, Dr. Mary A., 1140 E. Market St.
Stockton, Dr. Sarah, Central Hosp. for Insane.
Thomas, Miss Leila M., 52 State House.
Whallon, Thos. C., Judge Police Court.

* Sustaining members.

IOWA.

Associated Charities, Des Moines.
Cownie, John, The Capitol, Des Moines.
Crawford, Dr. A., Long Block, Mt. Vernon.
Dunlap, Miss Flora, Hd. Res. Roadside Settlement, Des Moines.
Fitzgerald, F. P., Supt. Girls' Indus. School, Mitchellville.
Glascoff, David A., Gen. Sec. Associated Char., Des Moines.
Lemen, H. R., The Christian Home, Council Bluffs.
Mogridge, Dr. George, Glenwood.
Robinson, G. S., 1632 Pearl St., Sioux City.
Treat, F. S., Sec. Bd. of Control, Des Moines.

KANSAS.

Allen, Henry J., Pres. Bd. of St. Char., Ottawa.
Bailey, Albert A., Saffordville.
Blackmar, F. W., Lawrence.
Fredenhagen, E. A., Sec. Assoc. Char., etc., Topeka.
Gleed, Mrs. Grace G., 1263 Western Ave., Topeka.
Hannon, John, Leavenworth.
Kanavel, G. W., Sedgwick.
McClaughry, Maj. R. W., Fort Leavenworth.
Plumb, Mrs. P. B., 224 E. 6th Ave., Emporia.
Snyder, Edwin, Oskaloosa.
Uhls, Dr. L. L., Supt. State Hosp., Osawatomie.

KENTUCKY.

Atkinson, John B., Earlington.
Breckenridge, Deshea, Lexington.
Breckenridge, Mrs. Deshea, 337 Linden Walk, Lexington.
Byall, J. Bruce, 216 Market St., Lexington.
Caldwell, Peter, Supt. Indus. Sch. of Reform, Louisville.
Doak, E. H., Supt. Ky. Houses of Reform, Greendale.
Flexner, Bernard, Columbia Bldg., Louisville.
Gallagher, Miss Emma A., Char. Organ. Soc., Louisville.
Grauman, Edward, Char. Org. Soc., Louisville.
Hayman, Mrs. Kate G., Chief Prob. Officer, Hotel Waverly, Louisville.
Hild, Col. J. P., Supt. Bd. of Ch. Guardians, 731 W. Jefferson St., Louisville.
Ingram, Miss Frances, Hd. Res. Neighborhood House, Louisville.
Morris, Rev. George V., Pres. Asso. Char., Lexington.
Osborne, L. B., 3 The Osborne, Louisville.
Osborne, Thomas D., Pres. Ky. St. Conf. Char. and Cor., Louisville.
Rideman, G. M., 532 3rd St., Louisville.
*Sehon, George L., Supt. Ch. Home Soc., Louisville.
Tarrant, M. Eleanor, 530 First St., Louisville.
Turpen, Margaret Streen, Beard.

LOUISIANA.

Agnew, L. H., Jordan and N. Pisino Sts., New Orleans.
Blaffer, J. A., Pres. La. S. P. C. C., New Orleans
Boning, George, 3447 Camp St., New Orleans.
Bonnabel, Mrs. Anna, 5946 Patton St., New Orleans.
Gordon, Mrs. Kate M., 1800 Prytania St., New Orleans.
Heymann, Michel, 5342 St. Charles Ave., New Orleans.
Horner, Mrs. Lucretia M., 1740 Bordeaux St., New Orleans.
Keiffer, Mrs. Julius, 1613 Carondelet St., New Orleans.
Leucht, Rabbi J. L., 844 Carondelet St., New Orleans.
Loeb, Joseph S., 825 Gravier St., New Orleans.
Low, Clarence F., 1015 Carrollton Ave., New Orleans.
Lyons, I. L., 222 Camp St., New Orleans.
McLaughlin, James J., 215 Carondelet St. New Orleans.
McMain, Miss Eleanor, Hd. Worker Kingsley House, 1202 Annunciation St., New Orleans.
Miles, Miss B. B., 1524 Harmony St., New Orleans.
Newman, Mrs. Isidore, St. Chas. and Foucher, New Orleans.
Rapier, Thomas G., The Picayune, New Orleans.
Thompson, T. P., 1812 Calhoun St., New Orleans.
Westfeldt, P. M., P. O. Box 601, New Orleans.
Wexler, Miss Minnie,* 1737 Napoleon Ave., New Orleans.

MAINE.

Albion, Rev. Jas. F., 21 Deering St., Portland.
Anthony, Alfred Wm., Sec. Indus. Sch. for Girls, Lewiston.
Bailey, Mrs. Hannah J., Winthrop Center.
Benson, Mrs. H. I., 201 Oxford St., Portland.
Boothby, Mrs. Fred. E., Falmouth Hotel, Portland.
Burnham, Miss Edith, Portland.
Burnham, Mrs. Edw. L., Pres. Women's Council, Portland.
Burrowes, E. T., 70 Free St., Portland.
Calkins, Rev. Raymond, 25 Storer St., Portland.
Campbell, Mrs. Helen, Bittersweet, Eliot.
Chase, Mrs. Hooper, 208 Essex St., Bangor.
DeGarmo, Mrs. E. E., 127 E. Emery St., Portland.
Dyer, Miss Grace, 10 Deering St., Portland.
Everett, Edward S., Portland.
Fitzgerald, Mrs. M. S., 4 Deering Place, Portland.
Flagg, Chas F., 194 Middle St., Portland.
Frye, Mrs. Geo. C., 364 Spring St., Portland.
Goding, C. W. T., 50 St. Lawrence St., Portland.
Gowen, Freeman, 1247 Congress St., Portland.
Gowen, Mary W., Portland.
Harmon, Mrs. Chas., 12 Deering St., Portland.
Hawes, Andrew, 1391 Congress St., Portland.
Hunt, Mrs. George S., 165 State St., Portland.
Josselyn, Everett R., Overseer of the Poor, Portland.
King, Mrs. Mary E., Prin. Indus. Sch. for Girls, Hallowell.
Kendall, Mrs. Mary B., 10 Henry St., Portland.
Laughlin, Alexander T., 136 Park St., Portland.
Laughlin, T. S., 20 Atlantic St., Portland.
Magruder, Rev. J. W., D. D., Pres. Assoc. Char., Portland.
Merrill, Mrs. Margaret T. W., 99 Winter St., Portland.
Moore, Mrs. Martha R., Sec. Asso. Char., City Bldg., Portland.
Nutt, Miss Elsie Clark, Fraternity Hse., 75 Spring St., Portland.
Payson, Mrs. Chas. H., 166 Vaughn St., Portland.
Randall, T. H., Supt. City Home, 551 Brighton Ave., Portland.
Ross, Charles H., Portland.
Stetson, W. W., Augusta.
Stevens, Mrs. L. M. N., Portland.
Thompson, Mrs. John T., Portland.
Wentworth, Edwin P., Supt. St. Reform Sch., Portland.
Weston, Mrs. C. A., 10 Pleasant Ave., Portland.

MARYLAND.

Glenn, Rev. W. L., Emmorton.

Baltimore.

Alexander, Miss C. Gertrude, Lawrence House Settlement, 816 W. Lombard St.
Amos, Mrs. Laura J., 2219 Druid Hill Ave.
Arens, Miss R. E., 715 Park Ave.
Baldwin. Miss Juliet C., 1006 N. Charles St.
Black, John, P. O. Box 303.
Brown, Miss Elizabeth, 127 E. North Ave.
Bruce, Mrs. Wm. Cabell, 8 W. Mt. Vernon Pl.
Carson, Thos. C., Prov. Savings Bank.
Cary, John R., Howard & Saratoga Sts.
Cochran, Mrs. B. W., 1411 Eutaw Pl.
Dempster, Miss Hattie, 1007 Harlem Ave.
Dobie. Miss Maud T., 816 Lombard St.
Duvall, Mrs. Emily, 2020 Linden Ave.
Eaton, Miss M. M., 119 W. Franklin St.
Emerson, Charles P., Johns Hopkins Hosp.
*Fabyan, Marshal, Johns Hopkins Hosp.
Frame, George, 123 S. Calvert St.
*Garrett, Mrs. Horatio W., Evergreen.
Garrett, Miss Mary E., 10 W. Monument St.
Gilman, Prof. D. C., Pres. Carnegie Institute.
Gilman, Miss Elizabeth, 614 Park Ave.
Glenn, John M., 831 N. Eutaw St.
*Glenn, John Jr., 312 St. Paul St.
Glenn, Mrs. John M., 831 N. Eutaw St.
Grasty Nathaniel G., Sec. Supervisors of City Char., City Hall.
Hammond, Dr. J. Henry, Banneker Normal and Indus. Inst.

* Sustaining members.

Hammond, Miss Juliet, 816 Lombard St., W.
Harvey, Miss Mary S., 1026 W. Fayette St.
Hendrix, J. M., Frederick Road.
Heuisler, Charles W., 918 McCulloh St.
Hollyday, Lamar, Supt. Dept. Char. and Cor.
Hollywood Children's Summer Home, 1715 Park Pl.
Hood, Alice W., 1231 N. Calvert St.
Hood, Florence M., 1231 N. Calvert St.
Hunter, T. James, 1324 N. Monument St.
Hutzler, David, care Hutzler Bros.
Jacobs, Dr. Henry Barton, 11 W. Mt. Vernon Pl.
Janney, Joseph J., Eutaw and Madison Sts.
*Kirk, Henry C., 1229 No. Charles St.
Lawford, J. M., 718 N. Howard St.
*Levering, Eugene, 1308 Eutaw Pl.
Levering, Joshua, 102 Commerce St.
Lichtenstein, Mrs. Rose Z., 1204 E. Baltimore St.
McLane, Miss Kate M., 1101 Charles St., N.
*Maron, A. C., 12 W. Lexington St.
Mowen Miss Bess L., 522 N. Arlington St.
*Newcomer, Waldo, P. O. Box 552.
Pendleton, Miss H. B., 1520 Eager St.
Poe, Miss Margaretta, 1500 Park Ave.
Ranstead, Miss K. A., 1703 Bolton St.
Remsen, Ira, Pres. Johns Hopkins Univ.
Ridgley, Miss Eliza, 939 St. Paul St.
Riggs, Lawrason, 814 Cathedral St.
Rutherford, Miss Anna E., 301 N. Chas. St.
*Scull, Charles O., 516 Woodlawn Rd., Roland Park.
Schuster, Geo., City Hall Annex.
Schryock, Thomas J., 1400 Madison Ave.
Simpson, Miss Mary O., 26 Fair Oak Ave., Waverley.
Spencer, Miss Mary G., 120 W. 21st St.
Spicer, Miss Esther, 2004 Park Ave.
Spicer, Miss S. Elizabeth, 420 Forest Rd., Roland Park.
Steele, H. Wirt, Sec. Soc. Prevention of Tuberculosis, Federated Charities Bldg.
Steiner, Bernard C., 106 W. Mulberry St.
Thelin, Miss Reiba, Johns Hopkins Hospital.
*Thom, DeCourcy W., 822 Equitable Bldg.
Ufford, Walter S., 101 W. Saratoga St.
Walker, Elisha H., Fidelity Bldg.
Walsh, Miss Elizabeth S., 336 N. Carey St.
Weiller, Harry C., 1817 Eutaw Pl.
White, Julian LeRoy, 2400 North Ave., W.
White, Miss Mary L., 1026 W. Fayette St.
White, Richard J., 13 North St.
Whiting, Miss Virginia, 1609 N. Calvert St.
*Wilmer, Miss Helen S., Johns Hopkins Hosp.
Wise, Geo. C., 30 S. Sharp St.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Abbott, Miss Gladys, 21 Parker St., Watertown.
Adams, Charles H., Melrose.
Adams, Mrs. Ellen F., 41 Brattle St., Cambridge.
Almy, Miss Helen Jackson, 147 Brattle St., Cambridge.
Andrews, Edward A., 7 Brown St., Cambridge.
Arnold, George F., 81 Davis Ave., Brookline.
Arnold, Mrs. George F., 81 Davis Ave., Brookline.
Baker, Harvey H., Newton St., Brookline.
Balch, Miss Emily G., Prince St., Jamaica Plain.
*Bickford, E. F., 38 Main St., Malden.
Bill, Nathan D., Pres. Union Relief Assn., Springfield.
Birtwell, Miss Mary L., Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., Cambridge.
Blackstone, H. M., Supt. State Farm, State Farm.
Bowen, Miss A. M., 63 Fayette St., Lynn.
Brooks, John Graham, 8 Frances St., Cambridge.
Burgess, Miss Mary H., 858 Albany St., Roxbury.
Burr, Mrs. Allston, Chestnut Hill.
Burrage, Miss Amy, 16 Beech Road, Brookline.
Carter, Rev. Clark, 206 Essex St., Lawrence.
Channing, Dr. Walter, Boylston St. & Chestnut Hill Ave., Brookline.
Charity Organization Society, New Bedford.
Chapin, Theodore F., Supt. Lyman Sch. for Boys, Westboro.
Chelsey, Mrs. Annie L., Parish House, 3 Church St., Cambridge.
Codman, Miss Catherine A., Westwood.
Codman, Col. Chas. R., Fisher Ave., Brookline.
Codman, Mrs. Henrietta G., Brookline.
Courtney, Martin J., City Hall, Lowell.
Cummings, Miss Harriet Alma, Kennard Road, Brookline.
Cummings, Miss H. F., 19 E. 7th St., New Bedford.
Davis, Miss Lucy W., 16 Emerson St., Brookline.
Dawes, Anna L., Pittsfield.
DeCourcy, Hon. Chas. A., Lawrence.
*Dennen, Rev. Ernest J., 80 So. Common St., Lynn.
*Doliber, Mrs. Thomas, Oak Rise, Brookline.
Donlan, Dr. Charles E., Supt. City Hos. and Almshouse, Lowell.
Dupee, Mrs. E. F., 309 Mt. Auburn St., Cambridge.
Edgerly, Miss Martha W., 39 Irving St., Brookline.
Emerson, Miss Charlotte, 202 Southbridge St., Worcester.
Emery, Miss Jessie F., The Warren, Roxbury.
Estabrook, Miss Rena, 101 Washington Ave., Cambridge.
Fancher, Mrs. Belle L., Matron Essex Co. Training School, Lawrence.
Fancher, W. Grant, Supt. Essex Co. Training School, Lawrence.
Fernald, Dr. Walter E., Waltham.
Fiske, Mrs. Sarah D., 102 Hancock St., Malden.

* Sustaining members.

Fitchburg Benevolent Union, 145 Main St., Fitchburg.
Gardner, Francis B., 31 Glenwood St., Brockton.
Goldsmith, Miss M. A., 12 Mason St., Lynn.
Greeley, Miss Mabel L., 678 Mass. Ave., Cambridge.
Hale, Rev. Edw. Everett, 39 Highland St., Roxbury.
Hamilton, Rev. Frederick W., Tufts College.
Hart, Charles S., South Dartmouth.
Harwood, Hon. A. L., Newton Centre.
Hersey, Rev. C. F., 755 So. 1st St., New Bedford.
Hitchcock, Dr. Edw., Amherst.
Hobart, Miss Lillian M., 19 Stetson St., Brookline.
Hodges, Very Rev. George, 3 Mason St., Cambridge.
Hopewell, Wm., 26 Pear St., Fall River.
Howard, Miss Emily W., 7 Brown St., Cambridge.
Hutchins, Lucy C., 66 Kirkland St., Cambridge.
Illman, Rev. Thomas W., Taunton.
James, Miss Mary W., Concord.
Jewett, R. Natalie, 16 Calumet Rd., Winchester.
Johnson, Charles R., Worcester.
Jones, Seward W., Newton Highlands.
Kennedy, F. L., 5 Mercer Circle, Cambridge.
Lawrence, Rev. Arthur, D. D., Stockbridge.
Lawrence, Rt. Rev. Wm., Cambridge.
Lincoln, Miss Frances M., 39 Cedar St., Worcester.
Lincoln, Leontine, Fall River.
Macdonald, Mrs. Edith S., 39 Columbia St., Brookline.
Mason, Miss Ellen E., 144 Washington St., Somerville.
Maxim, Mrs. J. A., 119 Fern St., Pittsfield.
Monroe, Will S., Westfield.
Montgomery, John F., Taunton.
Morse, Mrs. F. F., Supt. Indus. Sch. for Girls, Lancaster.
Nash, Mrs. Frank King, 23 Everett St., Dorchester.
Nichols, Dr. John H., Supt. State Hospital, Tewksbury.
*Nickerson, Rev. Thomas W. Jr., Pittsfield.
Norcross, Miss Lillian B., May St., Worcester.
O'Meara, Dr. Michael J., 36 Trumbull St., Worcester.
Page, Dr. D. L., Lowell.
Peabody, Francis G., 13 Kirkland St., Cambridge.
Pelton, Miss Garnet Isabel, East St., Dedham.
Percy, Miss Ada L., 194 Aspinwall Ave., Brookline.
Poole, Miss Mary E., 160 Main St., Peabody.
Prescott, Oliver, Jr., Market St., New Bedford.
Rand, Miss Lotta S., Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., 10 City Hall Sq., Lynn.
Robinson, Roswell R., 84 Linden Ave., Malden.
Rogers, Miss M. C., Canton.
Rotch, Mrs. W. J., New Bedford.

* Sustaining members.

Sanborn, Frank B., Concord.
Sanford, E. C., 24 Richards St., Worcester.
Seavey, Mrs. Mary L., 63 Clinton Road, Brookline.
Smart, Joseph A., Andover.
Southwick, Miss Bertha J., Supt. Asso. Char., Taunton.
Springfield Board of Trade, Springfield.
Stannard, Miss Emma Olive, 11 Central Ave., Medford.
Stedman, Dr. Henry R., South St., Brookline.
*Thorp, J. G., 115 Brattle St., Cambridge.
Tivnan, John B., 25 Hancock St., Salem.
Train, Miss Sarah B., Overseer of the Poor, Chestnut Place, Brookline.
Tucker, Miss Helen A., Avon.
Walker, Melvin H., 35 Summer St., Westboro.
Warren, M. A., Supt. Middlesex Indus. School, North Chelmsford.
Waters, Chester C., South Swansea.
Weld, Rev. George Francis, Hingham.
Wheeler, Walter A., Wachusett Road, Rutland.
Whiting, Mrs. Eliza R., 486 Main St., Springfield.
Witherspoon, Miss Miriam F., Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., 35 Pearl St., Worcester.
Woods, Miss Helen A., 821 Main St., Worcester.
Wright, Carroll D., Worcester.

Boston.

Adams, Arthur, Box 372.
Albro, Miss Helen B., 7 Concord Sq.
Allen, Rev. F. B., 132 Marlboro St.
Associated Charities, 43 Hawkins St.
Ayer, Dr. James B., 518 Beacon St.
Bageley, Mrs. William, 306 Beacon St.
Beale, Miss Mary S., State House.
Berry, Miss S. R., 43 Hawkins St.
Birtwell, Charles W., Gen. Sec. Boston Children's Aid Soc., Charity Bldg.
Boston Public Library, Copley Square.
*Brackett, Jeffrey R., 41 Marlboro St.
Bradley, Charles H., Supt. Farm Sch.
Breed, Miss Mary, 43 Hawkins St.
Bullard, Dr. Wm. N., 89 Marlboro St.
Burke, Robert E., 156 M. St.
Capen, Ed. Warren, 14 Beacon St.
Capen, Samuel B., 350 Washington St.
Choate, Miss Emma, 18 Louisburg Sq.
Clarke, Miss Emma H., 15 Brommer St.
Clifton, Miss Amy C., 43 Hawkins St.
Coe, Miss M. A., 12 Carver St.
Colcord, Charles A., St. Bd. of Char.
Coolidge, Ellen W., 81 Marlboro St.
Copp, Dr. Owen, 36 State House.
Crafts, Miss M. E., 308 Commonwealth Ave.
Crawford, Dr. Sarah M., St. Bd. of Char.
Curtis, Miss Frances G., 28 Mt. Vernon St.
Curtis, Miss Margaret, 28 Mt. Vernon St.
Damon, Miss Amelia R., 43 Charity Bldg.
Dawson, Miss Mary W., 198 Dartmouth St.
Derby, Dr. W. P., St. Bd. of Char.
Donnelly, Charles F., Ames Bldg.
Durham, Miss Elizabeth P., 53 Bakersfield St.

Eastwood, Mrs. Wm. Firth, 155 Rugg les St.
*Emmons, Miss Susan, 245 Commonwealth Ave.
*Evans, Mrs. Glendower, 12 Otis Place.
Field, Parker B., 277 Tremont St.
Fish, Dr. John E., State House.
Fisher, Miss A. E., 5 Joy St.
*Folsom, Miss Amy, 88 Marlboro St.
Folsom, Mrs. Chas. F., Overseer of the Poor, 15 Marlboro St.
Frothingham, Rev. P. R., Arlington St. Church.
Gilman, Miss Laura, 24 Hull St.
Grew, Henry Sturgis, 89 Beacon St.
Hartman, Edward T., Sec. Mass. Civic League, 4 Joy St.
Hartwell, Miss M. E., 413 Shawmut Ave.
Hecht, Mrs. J. H., Hotel Victoria.
Higgins, Miss Alice L., Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., 43 Hawkins St.
Hitchcock, Miss Alice C., Hd. Worker Hull St. Settlement, 36 Hull St.
Hoogs, Miss Grace S., 89 Pinckney St.
Howard, Dr. H. B., Mass. Gen. Hosp.
Hull, Miss Ida L., 795 Tremont St.
Humphreys, Richard C., 272 Congress St.
Humphreys, Mrs. Richard C., 49 Humphreys St., Upham Corner.
*Hunnewell, Miss Jane B., 303 Dartmouth St.
*Hunnewell, Walter, 87 Milk St.
*Jackson, Miss Marian C., 88 Marlboro St.
Jacobs, Miss Bertha W., 43 State House.
Jelly, Dr. George F., 69 Newbury St.
Kehew, Mrs. Mary M., 317 Beacon St.
Koren, John, 784 Beacon St.
Krokyn, Mrs. Rosa Z., 1214 Blue Hill Ave., Dorchester.
Ladd, Miss Emily J., 407 Marlboro St.
Laughney, Miss Elsie, 43 Charity Bldg.
Lawrence, Miss Sarah, 122 Commonwealth Ave.
Leahy, John P., 30 Court St.
*Lee, Joseph, 101 Tremont St.
Lesser, Miss Alice Parker, 42 Court St.
Lewis, Dr. Joshua F., Bd. St. Char.
Lincoln, Mrs. Alice N., 269 Beacon St.
Lincoln, D. F., 84 Myrtle St.
Lincoln, Roland C., 269 Beacon St.
*Lyman, Arthur T., P. O. Box 1717.
McCarthy, J. E., 30 Tremont St.
Magrath, Miss Margaret Carlton, 27 Fayette St.
Marten, John B., 32 Tremont St.
*Mason, Miss Ida M., 1 Walnut St.
Minns, Miss Grace W., 1 Acorn St.
Mitchell, Max, Federation of Jewish Char.
*Morse, Miss Frances R., 12 Marlboro St.
Murray, Mrs. George F. H., Sec. Trustees for Children, 30 Tremont St.
No. Bennet St. Indus. School, 39 N. Bennet St.
Overseers of the Poor, 17 Charity Bldg.
Paine, Miss Ethel L., 6 Joy St.
*Paine, Robert Treat, 6 Joy St.
Paine, Miss Sarah C., 21 Brimmer St.
Peabody, Harold, 183 Marlboro St.
Pear, Wm. H., 43 Charity Bldg
Perry, Miss Mary M., 241 St. Botolph St.
Peterson, Henry, Gen. Agt. Indus. Aid Soc., 44 Princeton St.
Pettee, Benjamin, 43 Hawkins St.
Pettigrove, Fred G., State House.
Pingree, Miss Laliah B., 233 Commonwealth Ave.
Pratt, Laban, St. Bd. of Char.
Prescott, Miss Josephine F., 43 Charity Bldg.
*Putnam, Dr. Charles P., 63 Marlboro St.
Putnam, Miss Elizabeth C., 63 Marlboro St.
*Rogers, Miss Annette P., 5 Joy St.
*Rogers, Mrs. Wm. B., 117 Marlboro St.
Seavey, Sumner D., Supt. Home of Reformation, Rainsford Isle.
*Shattuck, Mrs. F. C., 135 Marlboro St.
Simmons College.
Smith, Miss Frances A., 76 White St.
Smith, Miss Zilpha D., 76 White St.
Staigg, Mrs. R. M., 18 Louisburg Sq.
Stebbins, Miss Lucy W., 198 Dartmouth St.
Stephenson, Robert P., 43 Mt. Vernon St.
Stone, Seymour H., Gen. Sec. Ch. Friend Soc., 48 Rutland St.
Swan, Wm. W., 50 Congress St.
*Thayer, Mrs. Ezra Ripley, 77 Bay State Road.
Tilley, David F., 60 Devonshire St.
Tufts, George B., St. Bd. of Char.
Tuttle, Mrs. Elizabeth L., New Court House.
Wells, John D., State House.
Wentworth, Dr. Lowell F., State House.
White, Albert W., 885 Washington St.
Whitman, John P., 20 Union Park.
*Wigglesworth, George, 53 State St
Williams, Mrs. Francis H., 505 Beacon St.
Wilson, Alexander M., 8 Beacon St.
*Wolcott, Mrs. Roger, 173 Commonwealth Ave.

* Sustaining members.

MICHIGAN.

Baldwin, Mrs. Gertrude H., 3 Madison Ave., Detroit.
Barbour, Levi L., 661 Woodward Ave., Detroit.
Bliss, Hon. A. T., 1702 N. Mich. Ave., Saginaw.
Burr, Dr. C. B., Oak Grove Hosp., Flint.
Carpenter, Mrs. N. D., 138 Bagg St., Detroit.
Collins, Rev. Henry P., 58 Division St., Coldwater.
Cooley, Prof. C. H., Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor.
Crissey, T. W., Midland.
Field, Miss Emma, 139 N. Division St., Grand Rapids.
Fisher, J. Morris, 74 Congress St., Detroit.
Gillespie, Rt. Rev. George D., 162 Fountain St., Grand Rapids.
Ginsburg, Bernard, 84 Adelaide St., Detroit.
Griffin, S. C., 334 Chicago St., Coldwater.
Hart, Miss Blanche, Supt. United Jewish Char., 167 E. Canfield Ave., Detroit.
Hollister, Harvey J., 471 E. Fulton St., Grand Rapids.
*Hudson, J. L., Detroit.
*Kellogg, Dr. J. H., 202 Manchester St., Battle Creek.

Knaggs, Mrs. May Stocking, 813 N. Sheridan St., Bay City.
Krolik, Mrs. Sarah E., 25 Adelaide St., Detroit.
Light, Hon. Chas. W. Saginaw.
McGraw, Mrs. Thomas S., 81 Alfred St., Detroit.
McGregor, Tracy, 239 Brush St., Detroit.
McGregor, Mrs. Tracy, 239 Brush St., Detroit.
Michigan St. Pub. Sch., Coldwater.
Mowry, Dr. Henry P., Bronson.
Nieman, Mrs. Flora L., 139 N. Division St., Grand Rapids.
Nims, F. A., 105 Houston Ave., Muskegon.
O'Brien, Very Rev. Frank A., Kalamazoo.
Post, Dr. James A., 114 Bates St., Detroit.
Scheyer, David, 25 Adelaide St., Detroit.
Scheyer, Mrs. David, 25 Adelaide St., Detroit.
Sickels, Mrs. Lucy M., Supt. St. Indus. Home for Girls, Adrian.
Sinclair, Mrs. George F., 26 Madison Ave., Grand Rapids.
Stansberry, Miss Margaret, Hd. Res. Franklin St. Settlement, 519 Franklin St., Detroit.
Stewart, F. M., 36 S. Manning St., Hillsdale.
Storrs, L. C., Sec. St. Board of Char., Lansing.
Wallin, Franklin B., 58 N. College Ave, Grand Rapids.
Wente, Mrs. Wm., Manistee.
Wyman, Dr. Hal C., Detroit.

MINNESOTA.

Ancker, Dr. Arthur B., City and Co. Hosp., St. Paul.
Associated Charities, Minneapolis.
Associated Charities, 609 Baltimore Bldg., St. Paul.
Barton, W. P., City Hall, Minneapolis.
Bean, Miss Vera E., Humane Soc., Court House, Minneapolis.
Bracken, Dr. H. M., 1010 4th St., S. E., Minneapolis.
Cannon, Miss Ida M., 801 Globe Bldg., St. Paul.
Coleman, John, Supt. 1st State Asylum for Insane, Anoka.
Crosby, Miss Caroline M., Hd. Res. Unity Settlement, 1616 N. Wash. Av., Minneapolis.
Dean, Hon. Wm. B., 353 Summit Ave., St. Paul.
Derby, Maj. George, U. S. Engineer's Office, St. Paul.
Faulkner, Charles E., Washburn Home, Minneapolis.
Gammell, Dr. H. W., 6th St. Madison.
Gould, Hon. A. B. Winona.
Hanson, Miss Eleanor, 379 8th St., St. Paul.
Haupt, Rev. A. J. D., 175 Iglehart Ave., St. Paul.
Holbrook, Mrs. N. B., 1913 Ferona Ave., St. Paul.
Ireland, Most Rev. John, 977 Portland Ave., St. Paul.
Jager, H. J., 222 State Ave., Owatonna.
Jamme, Miss Marie R., 2133 Kenwood Parkway, Minneapolis.
Johnson, Hon. John A., Governor of Minn., St. Paul.
Johnston, Miss Grace, Red Wing.
Kassing, Miss Edith A., Red Wing.
Kenney, T. G., Red Wing.
Kingman, Miss Susan H., 227 Ridgewood Ave., Minneapolis.
Kirk, R. A., 445 Laurel Ave., St. Paul.
Laird, Wm. H., Winona.
Lawrence, Dr. W. D., 820 E. 17th St., Minneapolis.
Leavitt, S. W., Litchfield.
Lee, Hon. Wm. W., Long Prairie.
McDonald, Frank R., 1509 11th Ave., So. Minneapolis.
McNair, H. C., 328 Endicott Bldg., St. Paul.
McVey, Frank L., Univ. of Minn., Minneapolis.
Macomber, Miss Caroline M., 3528 Columbus Ave., Minneapolis.
Merrill, Galen A., Supt. Minn. St. Pub. Sch., Owatonna.
Norton, Matthew G., Winona.
Noyes, D. R., 366 Summit Ave., St. Paul.
Randall, Frank L., Gen. Supt. Minn. St. Reformatory, St. Cloud.
Rising, Mrs. F. A., 351 W. Broadway, Winona.
Rogers, Dr. A. C., Supt. Minn. Sch. for F. M., Faribault.
Rosing, L. A., St. Capitol, St. Paul.
Sageng, Ole O., Fergus Falls.
Schulz, C. G., Asst. Supt. Pub. Instn., St. Paul.
Shaw, O. W., Austin.
Shores, Mrs. E. W., 12 Chester Terrace, Duluth.
*Smith, Rev. S. G., Ph. D., 125 College Ave., St. Paul.
Solenberger, Edwin D., Gen. Man. Asso. Char., Minneapolis.
Sommers, Benjamin, 181 E 4th St., St. Paul.
Swanson, Miss Anna S., 1609 Stevens Ave., Minneapolis.
Taylor, Miss Elizabeth C., 1416 Ind. St., So., Minneapolis.
*Tomlinson, Dr. H. A., Supt. State Hosp., St. Peter.
Wheelock, Ralph W., 2424 Lyndale Av., So. Minneapolis.
Wirth, Mrs. Jacob, Pres. Jewish Relief Soc., 634 Laurel Ave., St. Paul.
Withrow, H. C., 10 City Hall, Duluth
Yanz, Thomas J., Supt. 2nd St. Asylum for Insane, Hastings.

MISSOURI.

Booth, Mrs. J. N., 4012 Delmar Ave., St. Louis.
Cramer, G., Shenandoah & Lemp Ave., St. Louis.
Damon, Geo. F., Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., Kansas City.
Davis, Rev. Carroll M., 1210 Locust St., St. Louis.
DeBolt, Mrs. L. U., Supt. St. Indus. Home for Girls, Liberty.
Eliot, Mrs. Henry W., 2635 Locust St., St. Louis.
Ellwood, Chas. A., Ph. D., Univ. of Mo., Columbia.

* Sustaining members.

Green, S. M., Sch. for the Blind, St. Louis.
Greensfelder, Bernard, 421 Olive St., St. Louis.
Hanson, J. M., 1333 Locust St., Kansas City.
Hart, H. E., St. Louis Poor House, St. Louis.
Horchert, Herman, New City Hall, St. Louis.
Kimball, Maj. A. E., Gen. Sec. Salvation Army, St. Louis.
King, Walter, Osage & Va. Ave., St. Louis.
Lewis, Mrs. W. J., 368 No. Taylor Ave., St. Louis.
McClain, W. H., Gen. Mngr. Provident Assn., 1623 Wash. Ave., St. Louis.
McClain, Mrs. W. H., 1623 Washington Ave., St. Louis.
Macomber, George, Supt. Mo. Training Sch. for Boys, Boonville.
Moore, Mrs. Philip N., 3125 Lafayette Ave., St. Louis.
Nagel, Charles, 700 Security Bldg., St. Louis.
Nelson, N. O., Pres. Mo. Child Labor Assn., St. Louis.
Perry, Miss Marv E., 12 Vandeventer Pl., St. Louis.
Riley, Thomas J., Ph. D., Univ. of Mo., Columbia.
Robertson, W. L., Gallatin.
Robi, Adolph, 9th and Garr St., St. Louis.
Rumbold, Miss Charlotte, 450 Century Bldg., St. Louis.
Scarritt, Wm. C., Amer. Bank Bldg., Kansas City.
Scully, Andrew, 4200 S. Broadway, St. Louis.
Stahmann, Rev. C. C., 4427 Margaretta Ave., St. Louis.
Toomey, Mrs. P. J., 4035 W. Morgan St., St. Louis.
Wednesday Club, 5459 Bartmer Ave., St. Louis.
*Wells, Rolla, St. Louis.

MONTANA.

Groeneveld, E. J., 631 W. Granite St., Butte.
Holmes, Levi E., Helena.
Price, D. B., Stevensville.
Rickman, M. L., Bozeman.

NEBRASKA.

Bernstein, Mogy, 407 City Hall, Omaha.
Bidwell, George F., F. E. & M. V. R. R., Omaha.
Davis, John, State House, Lincoln.
Dorsey, Mrs. Nan L., 119 N. 32d Ave., Omaha.
Edwards, Mrs. Amanda M., 18th and Ohio Sts., Omaha.
Heller, Mrs. H. H., 2205 S. 10th St., Omaha.
Johnson, Rev. P. C., St. Prison, Lincoln.
Johnston, Mrs. Emma C., 619 S. 11th St., Lincoln.
Morris, Rev. Stephen P., 408 City Hall, Omaha.
Omaha Pub. Library, Omaha.
Osborn, Dr. Frank E., Beatrice.
Prevey, C. E., Gen. Sec. C. O. S., 228 So. 10th St., Lincoln.
Quivey, E. P., Omaha.
Reed, Miss Mellie, 1806 Ohio St., Omaha

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Ahern, Wm. J., Sec. State Bd. of Char. and Cor., Concord.
Ayres, Philip W., Ph. D., Concord.
Blodgett, Mrs. I. N., Franklin.
Concord Woman's Club, 3 Liberty St., Concord.
Follansby, Mrs. Ella L., 75 High St., Exeter.
Mathes, Miss Frances A., South Road, Portsmouth.
Robinson, Tom W., State Indus. Sch., Manchester.
Robinson, Mrs. Tom W., State Indus. Sch., Manchester.
Streeter, Mrs. Frank S., 234 N. Main St., Concord.
Wendell, Miss C. R., 176 Central Ave., Dover.
White, Mrs. Armenia S., Capitol St., Concord.

NEW JERSEY.

Abbott, Augustus W., 124 Essex Ave., Orange.
*Alexander, Mrs. A., Castle Point, Hoboken.
Anderson, Miss Agnes, 163 Grand St., Jersey City.
Aschenbach, Miss Eleanor M., 12 Academy St., Newark.
*Atha, Benjamin, 756 High St., Newark.
*Bancroft, Miss Margaret, Supt. Haddonfield Training Sch., Haddonfield.
*Blair, Mrs. C. Ledyard, Peopack.
Burnham, Frederick G., Morristown.
Cantor, Miss Lydia, Woodbine.
Chisolm, George E., 19 Liberty St., Morristown.
Clark, Miss Bertha M., 87 Lincoln Ave., Newark.
Clark, Samuel, 173 Clinton Ave., Newark.
Colie, Edward M., 776 Broad St., Newark.
Condit, Miss Abbie, 34 Lincoln St., E. Orange.
Conover, Mrs. L. H., 1008 Broad St., Newark.
Cushing, Mrs. G. W. B., 50 Munn Ave., E. Orange.
Davis, Otto W., 280 Godwin St., Paterson.
Davis, Mrs. Otto W., 280 Godwin St., Paterson.
Dawson, Mrs. Henry H., 1011 Broad St., Newark.
Dennis, Dr. L., 30 Central Ave., Newark.
Doherty, Mrs. Henry, 609 E. 26th St., Paterson.
Donohue, Dr. F. M., State Home for Boys, Jamesburg.
Duncan, Miss Katharine P., 50 Park Pl., Newark.
Ely, Gervas, Lambertville.
Farrand, Wilson, 157 Ralston Ave., So. Orange.
*Feigenspan, Christian, 34 Freeman St., Newark.
Ferrall, Mrs. Eloise Russell, 39 South St., Newark.
Fox, Hugh F., Pres. Ch. Protective Alliance of N. J., Plainfield.

* Sustaining members.

Foy, Rev. Francis A., East Nutley.
Gallant, Robert B., Paterson.
Gaskill, Frank S., New Egypt.
Ginger, Miss Mina C., 64 Ninth Ave., Newark.
Greene, Frederick D., 169 Bellevue Ave., Upper Montclair.
Guilfoyle, John, 301 Clerk St., Jersey City.
Guire, John, Long Branch.
Gwinnell, Wm. B., 545 Mt. Prospect Ave., Newark.
Hameetman, Sander, 37 Watson St., Paterson.
*Hartshorn, Mrs. Stewart, Short Hills.
Hedden, Miss Frances M., 335 13th Ave., Newark.
Hedden, Miss L. Josephine, 335 13th Ave, Newark.
Higbie, James S., 1013 Broad St., Newark.
Hoffman, Frederick, Newark.
Hunt, Rev. W. R., 82 Hillside Ave., Orange.
Jacobson, Mary A., 969 Broad St., Newark.
Johnstone, E. R., Prin. N. J. Training School, Vineland.
Kalleen, John C., Supt. State Home for Boys, Jamesburg.
Knox, Rev. W. W., 58 Bayard St., New Brunswick.
Kramm, Miss Josephine M., Supt. C. O. S., Elizabeth.
Laddey, Miss Paula, 52 New Lawn Ave., Arlington.
Lantz, Miss Eleanor, 78 Tracey Ave., Newark.
Lathrop, Miss A. C., Westfield, Union Co.
Lockwood, F. M., 92 Danforth Ave., Jersey City.
Loomis, Frank D., 10-12 Academy St., Newark.
McDougall, A. W., Supt. Asso. Char., 10-12 Academy St., Newark.
MacCall, Charles A., Board of Education, Newark.
Mansell, Mrs. Elizabeth V. H., Supt. State Home for Girls, Trenton.
Marshall, Mrs. James, 65 Lincoln Park, Newark.
Matthews, Carolyn, 445 Ellison St., Paterson.
Milne, Mrs. Alexander, 47 Spruce St., Newark.
Moran, Rev. Thomas J., Catholic Protectory, Arlington.
*Morgan, Wm. Fellowes, Short Hills.
Mulvaney, John J., 235 Summit Ave., Jersey City.
Nevin, Miss M. M., St. Home for Girls, Trenton.
Nicholson, Mrs. J. W., Moorestown.
*O'Connor, Rt. Rev. J. J., Bishop of Newark, South Orange.
Ogden, Mrs. Edward H., Riverton.
Paine, Miss Grace Elizabeth, Summit.
Price, Wilbur R., 38 Kearney St., Newark.
Princeton Univ. Library, Princeton.
Reeve, Richard H., 700 Cooper St., Camden.
Ridgeway, Joseph, Clarksboro.
Sinnochson, Mrs. Andrew, 16 Chestnut St., Salem.
Smallwood, Wm. C., 12 Academy St., Newark.
Smith, Miss E. C., 61 Franklin St., Morristown.
Smock, Mrs. Geo. A., 511 Asbury Ave., Asbury Park.
Spaeth, Edward, Newark.
Stokes, Walter P., Moorestown.
Strong, George A., 1030 Central Ave, Plainfield.
Sweeney, Algernon T., 14 Cottage St., Newark.
Tiffany, Mrs. Dexter, 125 Crescent Ave., Plainfield.
Tuttle, Nannette D., Tenafly.
Tyler, Mason W., 525 W. 7th St., Plainfield.
Van Leer, Miss Mary F., 1367 Kaighn Ave., Camden.
*Van Wagenen, Bleecker, Montrose Ave W., So. Orange.
Van Winkle, Mrs. Franklin, 297 Broadway, Paterson.
Willets, Joseph, Trenton.
Williams, James B., 124 Essex Ave., Orange.
*Williamson, Mrs. E. E., 310 N. Broad St., Elizabeth.
Wood, Mrs. Alexander C., Riverton.

* Sustaining members.

NEW MEXICO.

Apgar, Miss Margarette, Raton.

NEW YORK.

Acker, Mrs. M. M., Hornell.
Aldrich, Hon. Newton, Gouverneur.
Baker, Rev. N. H., Victor Hill.
Bates, Mrs. Helen Page, State Library, Albany.
Beardsley, Mrs. H. M., 365 W. 1st St., Elmira.
Bigelow, Mrs. Lewis, 50 So. Union St., Rochester.
Briggs, Franklin H., Rochester.
Brown, George R., Supt. Leake & Watts Orphans' Home, Yonkers.
Brown, Mrs. George R., Yonkers.
Bruce, Dr. Hortense V., Hudson.
Buck, William B., St. Bd. of Charities, Albany.
Burtsell, Richard L., D. D., 157 Broadway, Rondout.
Bush, Mrs. J. J., 815 College Ave., Elmira.
Butler, Miss Mary Marshall, 263 Palisade Ave., Yonkers.
Carson, Dr. J. C., Supt. Syracuse St. Inst. for F. M., Syracuse.
Clarkson, Miss Annie, Potsdam.
Colgate Univ. Library, Hamilton.
Crane, Joseph A., 96 Front St., Rochester.
Cullen, John A, 64 Park Pl., Newark.
Curtis, Mrs. Anna S., West New Brighton.
Curtis, Miss Elizabeth B., Bard Ave., West New Brighton.
*Davenport, Mrs. John, Bath.
Davies, Mrs. Lucie Rice, Tuxedo Park.
Davis, Miss Katharine B., Bedford.
Doane, Rt. Rev. Wm. Carroll, 29 Elk St., Albany.
Earp, Edwin L., Ph. D., Syracuse.
Fassett, Mrs. J. Sloat, Strathmont, Elmira.
Fetter, Frank A., Cornell Heights, Ithaca.

Florence, Sister M., Mt. Magdalen School of Industry, People's Ave., Troy.
Floyd, Augustus, Moriches P. O., Mastic.
Folks, Mrs. Homer, 15 Landscape Ave., Yonkers.
Gannett, Mrs. Mary T. Lewis, 15 Sibley Pl., Rochester
Gridley, Mrs. C. H., 113 Walnut St., Elmira.
Hamilton, Miss Jean, Sec. Natl. League of Women Workers, Oswego.
Henry, Rev. Brother, N. Y. Catholic Protectory, West Chester.
Hill, Dr. R. W., Acting Sec. Bd. of St. Charities, Albany.
Hilles, Charles D., Chauncey.
Hilles, Mrs. Charles D., Chauncey.
*Hitch, Mrs. Frederick D., Newburg.
Hubbard, Dr. W. H., 35 Franklin St., Auburn.
Jessup, Rev. Charles A., The Rectory, Greenport, Suffolk Co.
Johnson, Chas. H., Supt. St. Christopher Home, Dobbs Ferry.
Klauder, Rev. Alex. L. A., Faust.
Klein, John, Hawthorne.
Landsberg, Max, 420 E. Main St., Rochester.
Landsberg, Mrs. Max, 420 E. Main St., Rochester.
Lattimore, Miss Alida, 595 University Ave., Rochester.
Law, Mrs. W. W., Scarborough.
Letchworth, Josiah, Glenwood Beach, Ensenore.
*Letchworth, Hon. W. P., Castile, Wyoming Co.
Long, Edward B., White Plains.
Lowe, Walter I., Wells College, Aurora.
McCarthy, Dennis, 217 So. Salina St., Syracuse.
McCredie, James, 34 Clinton Ave., Albany.
McLaughlin, George, State Capitol, Albany.
Mayo, W. W., Supt. Berkshire Indus. Farm, Canaan Four Corners.
Murphy, Daniel B., Rochester.
Nelson, Joseph, Dunkirk.
Newbold, Miss Catherine A., Hudson River St. Hosp., Poughkeepsie.
Olcott, Dudley, 9 Ten Broeck St., Albany.
Osborne, Thomas M., Pres. George Jr. Republic, Auburn.
Parker, John A., George Jr. Republic, Freeville.
Parsons, Miss Florence J., Gen. Sec. The Woman's Institute, Yonkers.
Pierce, James W., Pleasantville.
Potts, Jesse W., 342 State St., Albany.
Pratt, Anna B., 505 Fitch St., Elmira.
Putnam, Miss Emma, Hudson River St. Hosp., Poughkeepsie.
Reeder, Rudolph R., Hastings-on-Hudson.
Reeder, Mrs. R. R., Hastings-on-Hudson.
Rosendale, Simon W., 57 State St., Albany.
Sahler, Dr. C. O., Kingston.
Schmid, Dr. H. E., White Plains.
St. Theresa, Sister, Ogdensburg City Hosp. for Children, Ogdensburg.
Stevenson, Rev. H. B., Auburn.
Stewart, Miss Sara Vance, 152 Baden St., Rochester.
Stoddard, Dr. E. V., 62 S. Wash St., Rochester.
Syracuse Central Library, Syracuse.
Thiry, J. H., 181 Academy St., Long Island City.
Thomas, Ralph W., Hamilton.
Towne, Arthur W., Sec. Assoc. Char., Syracuse.
Warren, Walter P., "Montairy," Troy.
Wilcox, Prof. Walter F., 3 South Ave., Cornell Univ., Ithaca.
Wood, James, Mt. Kisko.

Brooklyn.

Bergen, Mrs. Tunis G., 101 Willow St.
Byrd, Miss C. Elma, 104 Vernon Ave.
Day, Albert A., Gen. Agt. and Sec. A. I. C. P., 104 Livingston St.
DeSilver, Carll H., 43 Pierreport St.
*Dreier, Miss Katharine S., 6 Montague Terrace.
Dreier, Miss Mary E., 6 Montague Terrace.
Haynes, Miss Lasure S., 1124 Bedford Ave.
Kaupert, Rev. George, 115 Thorp Ave.
Lazarus, Paul, 373 393 Ralph Ave.
Liebman, Zoe, 46 Garden Pl.
McDonnell, Rt. Rev. C. E., D. D., 367 Clermont Ave.
McLean, Francis H., 69 Schermerhorn St.
McNamee, Rev. Joseph, 563 Sterling Pl.
Mayer, Miss Alice C., 835 Jefferson Ave.
Nichols, William I., 69 Schermerhorn St.
Ovington, Miss Mary W., Hotel St. George.
Owens, Joseph E., 189 Montague St.
*Pouch, F. E., 305 Adams St.
Richardson, Miss Bertha, 86 So. Oxford St.
Schumann, Miss Kate, 1136 Busbuick Ave
Shieblen, George F., 4 Court Sq.
Simons, Miss Elia K., 100 Ross St.
Smith, Bevier, 121 State St.
Steel, Miss Laura A., 85 Java St.
Wakeman, Arthur E., 61 Poplar St.
Wakeman, Mrs. Arthur E., 61 Poplar St.
*White, Alfred T., 40 Remsen St.
*White, Miss Frances E., 2 Pierrepont Pl.
White, Rev. Wm. J., D. D., 98 Richards St.

Buffalo.

Almy, Frederic, 165 Swan St.
Bartow, Mrs. Bernard, 481 Delaware Ave.
Berge, Henry von, Perry and Miss. Sts.
Canisius College Library, 651 Wash. St.
Elkus, Mrs. Emily L. S., 651 W. Delaware Ave.
*Gratwick, W. H., 877 Ellicott Sq.
*Hamlin, Mrs. Wm., 1058 Delaware Ave.
Howard, Dr. Charles F., 1458 Main St
Howard, John R. J., 404 Seneca St.
Laverack, Miss Jean, 519 Delaware Ave
Lee, Porter R., 19 Tupper St.
Letchworth, O. P., 189 Tonawanda St.
Lewis, George A., 258 Elmwood Ave.
Mitchell, Mrs. S. S., 424 Linwood Ave.
Montgomery, Miss Louise, 404 Seneca St.
Moore, Alice Olivia, 812 Auburn Ave.
Munro, Josiah G., 61 Erie Co. Bank Bldg.
Prince, George G., 115 Lancaster Ave.

* Sustaining members.

Smith, T. Guilford, Pres. C. O. S.
Wilcox, Ansley, 684 Ellicott Sq.
Wilcox, Miss Mabel, 404 Seneca St.
Williams, Miss Martha T., 1226 Main St.

New York City.

Abbott, Rev. Lyman, 105 E. 22nd St.
Adams, Myron E., 501 W. 50th St.
Agnew, A. G., 22 William St.
Allen, William H., Gen. Agt. A. I. C. P., 105 E. 22nd St.
*Amend, Bernard G., 120 E. 19th St.
American, Miss Sadie, Exec. Sec. Council of Jewish Women, 448 Central Park W.
Andrews, Constant A., 606 Madison Ave.
Armstrong, Dr. S. T., 144 E. 37th St.
Arnold, Miss Mabel V., 105 E. 22nd St.
Baker, Richard C., 1336 Lexington Ave.
Bannard, Otto T., 26 Broad St.
Barnabas, Brother, 417 Broome St.
Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., 135 E. 15th St.
Barrows, Samuel J., 135 E. 15th St.
Barry, J. J., 1331 Franklin Ave.
Bauer, Frederick E., 66 Third Ave.
Belyea, Miss Jessie I., 1230 Amsterdam Ave.
*Benjamin, Eugene S., 49 Lafayette Pl.
Benjamin, M. W., 18th and 5th Ave.
Berger, W. J., 379 Broadway.
Bernheimer, Charles S., 184 Eldridge St.
Bernstein, Ludwig B., 150th St. and Broadway.
Berry, Mrs. A. M., 168 W 128th St.
Bettelheim, Mrs. Cyd., 318 E. 82nd St.
*Bijur, Nathan, 34 Nassau St.
Birch, Miss Blanche L., 413 W. 46th St.
Bird, Hon. P. H., 162 Ninth Ave.
Bishop, Dr. Louis F., 54 W. 55th St.
Booth, Miss Mary W., Lincoln Hosp. and Home, E. 141st St. and Southern Boulevard.
Borg, Sidney C., 20 Nassau St.
Boyle, James F., 140 E. 44th St.
Brace, C. Loring, Sec. Children's Aid Soc., 105 E. 22nd St.
Brandt, Miss Lilian, 105 E. 22nd St.
Bressler, Mr. David M., 174 2nd Ave.
Butler, Edmund J., 402 W. 42nd St.
Butler, Miss Helen C., 550 Park Ave.
*Byers, Joseph P., House of Refuge, Randall's Island.
*Canfield, George Folger, 49 Wall St.
Carstens, C. C., 105 E. 22nd St.
*Choate, Hon. Joseph J, 44 Pine St.
Clark, Miss Mary V., 105 E 22nd St.
Connor, Francis, 132 E. 45th St.
Cox, Charles F., Grand Central Station.
Crane, John, 307 103rd St.
Crimmins, John D., 624 Madison Ave.
Crowell, Miss F. Elizabeth, 1230 Amsterdam Ave.
Cunnion, Frank P., 420 E. 120 St.
*Cutting, R. Fulton, 32 Nassau St.
Daly, Joseph F., 54 Wall St.
Damer, Miss Annie, 217 E. 27th St.
Decker, Miss A. M., 127 Chrystie St.
*DeForest, Robert W., 30 Broad St.
Delano, Miss Jane A., Supt. Bellevue Tr. School for Nurses, 426 E. 26th St.
DePeyster, Mrs. Annie G., 101 W. 81st St.
Detgen, Miss Adelaide, 201 E. 35th St.
Devare, C., Sec. Abigail Free Sch. and Kindergarten, 170 Sullivan St.
*Devine, Edward T., Gen. Sec. C. O. S., 105 E. 22nd St.
Devine, Mrs. Edward T., 113th and Amsterdam Ave.
Dinwiddie, Miss Emily Wayland, 105 E. 22nd St.
*Dodge, Mrs. Arthur M., Pres. Federation of Day Nurseries, 125 E. 39th St.
*Dodge, Rev. D. Stuart, 99 John St.
*Dodge, Miss Grace H., 262 Madison Av.
Egan, Bernard J., 450 W. 25th St.
Einstein, Mrs. Wm., 121 E. 57th St.
Ely, Robert E., Dir. The League for Political Education, 23 W. 44th St.
Emerson, Mrs. Sarah H., 425 West End Ave.
Eyre, Edward, 1 Hanover Sq.
Fallon, John J., Warden Penitentiary, Blackwell's Island.
Farley, The Most Rev. John M., D. D., 452 Madison Ave.
Farrand, Dr. Livingston, 105 E. 22nd St.
Farrell, Miss E. E., 8 Henry St.
Farrelly Stephen, 39 Chambers St.
Fisher, Miss, 105 E. 22nd St.
Fitzgerald, John J., Sec. Particular Council St. Vincent de Paul, 111 5th Ave.
Fitzpatrick, Rev. Mallick J., 2 Lafayette Place.
Folks, Homer, 105 E. 22nd St.
Forbes, James, 105 E. 22nd St.
Ford, Mrs., 105 E. 22nd St.
*Ford, James B., 4 E. 43rd St.
Frankel, Lee K., 356 2nd Ave.
Franklin, Miss H. Grace, R. N., 20 W. 104th St.
*Fretwell, John, 126 E. 28th St.
Frissell, A. S., 530 Fifth Ave.
Fullerton, Mrs. Marietta, 143 E. 30th St.
Gallagher, Charles D., 53 W. 24th St.
Gerry, Elbridge T., 2 E. 61st St.
Gillespie, George J., 56 Pine St.
Gould, Prof. E. R. L., 281 Fourth Ave.
Greenbaum, Mrs. Leo S., 151 E. 71st St.
Griswold, Mrs. Chester, 23 W. 48th St.
Grosvenor, Willis Lee, 105 E. 22nd St.
*Guggenheim, William, 500 Fifth Ave.
Hall, George A., 105 E. 22nd St.
Hall, Miss Helen M., 741 Tenth Ave.
*Hallgarten, Charles L., 5 Nassau St.
Hanson, Miss Matilda, 409 E. 64th St
*Harkness, Edward S., 26 Broadway.
*Hebberd, Robert W., Ft. of East 26th
Heinsheimer, L. A., 52 William St.
Hellman, Mrs. Theodore, 36 W. 54th St.
Henry, Miss A. M., 105 E. 22nd St.
*Herrman, Mrs. Esther, 59 W 56th St.
Hernsheim, Mrs. Joseph, 307 W. 106th St.
Herzog, Miss Edith, 127 E. 72nd St.
Higginson, James J., 16 E. 41st St.
Hitchock, Miss J. Elizabeth, 265 Henry St.
Hixon, Miss Jessie M., 116 W. 129th St.
Hoe, Mrs. Richard M., 11 E. 71st St.
*Hoguet, Robert J., 487 Broadway.
Holt, Henry, 29 W. 23rd St.
*Hubbard, Thomas H., 35 Wall St.
Huntington, Rev. W. R., D. D., 804 Broadway.
Hurst, Wm. H., 54-56 Broad St.
*Huyler John S., 64 Irving Place.
Ingram, Mrs. Helene, 261 W. 44th St.
Isaacs, Isaac S., 52 William St.
*Jackson, Rev. Samuel M., 692 West End Ave.
Jackson, Theodore F., 10 W. 43rd St.
*Jacobi, Dr. A., 19 E. 47th St.

* Sustaining members.

Jennings, Miss A. B., 48 Park Ave.
Jones, Edith, 409 E. 64th St.
Kahn, Otto H., 8 E. 68th St.
Keating, Redmond, 506 E. 85th St.
Kelley, Mrs. Florence, 105 E. 22nd St.
Kellogg, Mrs. Arthur, 33 Charles St.
Kellogg, Paul U., 105 E. 22nd St.
Kellor, Frances A., 19 E. 26th St.
Kelly, E. J., 51 Chambers St.
Kelsey, Miss Helen M., 156 5th Ave.
Kennaday, Paul, 105 E. 22nd St.
Kernan, Joseph A., 51 Chambers St.
Kidder, Edward H., 17 Battery Pl.
Kruesi, Walter E., 105 E. 22nd St.
Kunzmann, Frank, 287 4th Ave.
Kursheedt, M. A., 280 Broadway.
Lattimore, Miss Florence L., 504 W 112th St.
Lee, Fred S., 125 E. 65th St.
*Lee, Mrs. Fred S., 125 E. 65th St.
Lehman, Emanuel, 16-22 William St.
Lewis, Orlando F., 105 E. 22nd St.
Loeb, James, P. O. Box 1193.
Loeb, Morris, Ph. D., 173 Madison Ave.
*Low, Hon. Seth., E. 64th St.
*Lowell, Miss C. R., 43 E. 64th St.
Lowenstein, Solomon, Amsterdam Ave. and 137th St.
Lyon, A. M., 1700 Broadway.
McCutcheon, Mrs., 105 E. 22nd St.
McKenna, Charles F., 221 Pearl St.
McKim, John A., 6 E. 74th St.
McMahon, Rev. D. J., 239 E. 21st St.
*Macy, V. Everit, 68 Broad St.
*Macy, Mrs. V. Everit, 68 Broad St.
Maickel, Valentine, 342 E. 87th St.
Maillard, Henry, 116 W. 25th St.
Mandl, Michael, Ft. East 26th St.
Mark, Clarence A., 105 E. 22nd St.
Marks, Marcus M., 687 Broadway.
Marshall, Charles H., 45 William St.
Matthews, Miss May, 413 W. 46th St.
Maxwell, Miss Anna C., 41 E. 70th St.
*Miller, Dr. G. N., 811 Madison Ave
Mills, D. O., 15 Broad St.
Mills, Frederick H., 97 Warren St.
Miner, Miss Maude E., 417 W. 114th St.
Moore, W. H. H., 51 Wall St.
*Morgan, Mrs. J. B., 40 E. 38th St.
*Morgan, Mrs. J. Pierrepont, 219 Madison Ave.
Moulton, Franklin W., 59 Wall St.
*Mulry, Thomas M., 543-545 W. 21st St.
N. Y. Asso. for Improving the Condition of the Poor, 105 E. 22nd St.
N. Y. Public Library, 40 Lafayette Pl.
Notman, John, 54 Wall St.
*O'Donohue, Mrs. Joseph J., 5 E. 69th St.
Ollesheimer, Mrs. H., Hotel Savoy.
*Osborn, W. C., 40 E. 36th St.
Parker, Edward Justus, 124 W. 14th St.
*Parsons, Mrs. Edwin, Riverside Drive and 90th St.
*Peabody, George Foster, 54 William St.
Peters, Rev. J. P., 225 W. 99th St.
Peterson, Dr. Frederick, 4 W. 50th St.
Philbin, Eugene, 54 William St.
Pitcher, Miss Mary M., 110 E. 17th St.
Proudfit, Alexander C., 105 E. 22nd St.
Reynolds, James B., 7 W. 43rd St.
Rice, Henry, 19 E. 66th St.
Rice, Mrs. Wm. B., 17 W. 16th St.
Robb, J. Hampden, 23 Park Ave.
Robinson, Mrs. Beverly, 42 W. 37th St.
Robinson, George B., 415 Broome St.
Rodrigue, John J., 415 Broome St.
Russell, Charles H., 15 Broad St.
Sanford, Miss Mary R., 25 E. 30th St.
Sanger, Miss Clara, 248 E. 34th St.
*Satterlee, Herbert L., 225 Madison Ave
Scanlan, Michael J., 51 Chambers St.
*Schiff, Jacob H., 27 Pine St.
*Schiff, Mortimer L., 27-29 Pine St.
*Schuyler, Miss Louisa L., 37 Madison Ave.
Scott, Miss E. I., 105 E. 22nd St.
*Seligman, Isaac N., Mills Bldg.
Sherman, W. W., 838 Fifth Ave.
Smith, Rev. C. B., 101 E. 69th St.
Smith, Mrs. Frank Sullivan, 145 W. 58th St.
Smith, J. Henry, 10 Wall St.
Smith, Dr. Stephen, 3 W. 92nd St.
Smith, Thomas C., 135 Broadway.
*Smith, Wm. Alex., 412 Madison Ave.
Snedden, David S., Teacher's College, 120th St.
Solomon, Henry, 58 E. 65th St.
Spencer, Rev. Anna Garlin, 105 E. 22nd St.
Spengler, Miss Amelia, 163 St. Nicholas Ave.
Speyer, James, 257 Madison Ave.
Stern, Benjamin, 32 W. 23rd St.
*Stern, Louis, 993 5th Ave.
Stewart, Lispenard, 31 Nassau St.
*Stewart, Hon. Wm. R., 31 Nassau St.
*Stewart, Wm. R. Jr., 24 W. 57th St.
Stimson, Dr. D. M., 11 W. 17th St.
Stoiber, Louis, care Keller Printing Co., 722 Broadway.
Stokes, James, 49 Cedar St.
Stokes, J. G. Phelps, 184 Eldridge St.
Stonaker, C. L., 463 Fifth Ave.
Strassburger, Conrad, 414 6th St.
Strassburger, Peter F., 414 6th St.
*Sulzberger, Cyrus L., 93 Prince St.
Superior Council St. V. de P., 2 Lafayette Place.
Taber, Miss Marion Russell, 348 Lexington Ave.
Tack, Theodore E., 112 W. 82nd St.
*Thorne, Samuel, 43 Cedar St.
*Tierney, Myles, 317 Riverside Drive.
Tod, J. Kennady, 45 Wall St.
Tucker, Frank, 105 E. 22nd St.
Tully, James M., 247 Broadway.
Underhill, J. D., 253 Broadway.
Waite, Rev. Abbott L. R., 840 E. 165th St.
*Warburg, Paul M., 52 William St.
Ward, John Seely, Jr., 1 Broadway.
Wardwell, Wm. T., 26 Broadway
Webster, Dr. David, 327 Madison Ave.
Weekes, F. Delano, 45 William St.
Wendell, Evert Jansen, 8 E. 38th St.
Wheeler, Mrs. Everett P., 735 Park Ave.
Wheelock, Dr. George G., 75 Park Ave.
White, Abraham, 1419 Clinton Ave.
White, Gaylord S., Union Settlement, 237 E. 104th St.
White, Horace, 18 W. 69th.
Whitin, E. Stagg, Columbia University.
Whittelsey, Mary E., 110 Ross St.
Williams, Mornay, 59 Wall St.
Williams, Mrs. Mornay, 305 W. 88th St.
Wise, Rabbi Stephen S., 46 E. 68th St.
Witherbee, Frank S., 71 Broadway.
Wright, Henry C., City Club.
Wright, Rev. Merle St. Croix, 215 W. 126th St.
Young, George W., 59 Cedar St.
Ziesse, Miss M., Brick Presbyterian Ch., 5th Ave.

* Sustaining members.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Denson, Miss Daisy, Sec. Board of Charities, 528 N. Wilmington St., Raleigh.
Holman, Miss Lydia, Ledger.
Hunter, Carey J., Oakwood and Person Sts., Raleigh.
McClure, Rev. Alexander, D. D., 314 Red Cross St., Wilmington.
Rankin, Frank B., Mt. Holly.
Rogers, Winston, Oxford.
Stephenson, Rev. R. S., 317 Park St., Raleigh.
Streeter, William B., Greensboro.
Weil, Mrs. S., Pres. Benevolent Soc., Goldsboro.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Hall, Frank D., 1425 4th Ave. So., Fargo.

OHIO.

Adams, C. B., Lancaster.
Adams, Mrs. C. B., Lancaster.
Allen, Charles A., 231 S. Jefferson St., Dayton.
Armstrong, Mrs. Lydia M., Athens.
Baker, N. W., Supt. Co. Infirmary, Chauncey.
Bishop, S. P., Delta, Fulton Co.
Blount, Mrs. Sinai C., Marton Children's Home, Hillsboro.
Briggs, Mrs. E. S., Ashland.
Brinkerhoff, Roeliff, Mansfield.
Burton, Rufus C., Zanesville.
Bushnell, Martin B., 34 Sturges Ave., Mansfield.
Candy, Robert, Columbus.
Christian, George B. Jr., 228 Mt. Vernon Ave,. Marion
Currier, Rev. A .H., D. D., 105 Elm St., Oberlin.
Dunton, Dr. O. H., S. Court St., Circleville.
Eagleson, Rev. W. S., 40 S. 3rd St., Columbus.
Ellis, Otis K., Franklin Co. Infirmary, Columbus.
Follett, Hon. M. D., Marietta.
Frazier, S. R., Ph. D., 518 Bryson St., Youngstown.
Grumman, Mrs. D .J., The Normandie, Columbus.
Hager, Frank L., Columbus.
Harlow, Miss Elizabeth, Youngstown.
Harris, Andrew L., Columbus.
Hathaway, S. J., Marietta.
*Heer, F. J., E. Main St., Columbus.
Herrick, Hon. Myron T., Columbus.
Johnstown, W. S., Dir. Franklin Co. Infirmary, South Columbus.
Jordan, J. L., Marietta.
Jordan, Mrs. J. L., Marietta.
Kershaw, Miss M. Ellen, 754 Oak St., Columbus.
Kilbourne, James, 604 E. Town St., Columbus.
Lakin, Milton C., 66 W. 2nd Ave., Columbus.
Lemert, Mrs. Mary L., 320 E. Warren St., Bucyrus.
Lenhart, Adam, Springfield.
Leonard, James A., Ohio St. Reformatory, Mansfield.
McKinley, J. B., Harrisburg.
Martin, Miss Margaret, Columbus.
Oren, Jesse N., Wilmington.
Platt, R. H., 13 E. State St., Columbus.
Pond, Rev. C. N., 199 W. College St., Oberlin.
Prophet, H. S., 414 W. North St., Lima.
Sarchet, C. P. B., Cambridge.
Shirer, H. H., Sec. Bd. State Char., Columbus.
Sneath, Mrs. Samuel B., 179 Monroe St., Tiffin.
Sulzberger, Mrs. I., Steubenville.
Trimble, Dr. R. T., New Vienna.
Washington Township Trustees, Piqua, Miami Co.

Cincinnati.

Allison, James.
Allison, Mrs. James.
Bogen, Boris D., 965 Elleron Ave.
*Breed, Wm. J., 1227 W. 8th St.
Crouse, Meigs V., 312 W. 9th St.
Dunn, James, 304 Broadway.
*Emery, Mrs. Thomas J., Walnut Hills.
Fleischmann, Julius, 4th and Plum Sts.
Gamble, James N., 1430 Union Trust Bldg.
*Hall, Miss Anne S., The Auburn, Mt. Auburn.
Hubbard, Charles Meredith, Gen. Sec. Asso. Char., 304 Broadway.
Isaacs, Mrs. Moses, 2216 Fulton St.
Johnson, J. E., 206 W. Pearl St.
Levy, Harry M., St. Paul Bldg.
*MacDonald, Alexander, Box 872.
Magley, William, 2623 Eden Ave., Mt. Auburn.
Marks, Louis D., 15 E. Third St.
Melendy, Royal L., Plum and Liberty St.
Melendy, Mrs. Royal L., University Settlement.
Miller, Charles A., Bd. of Pub. Service.
Particular Council St. V. de P., 3rd and Vine Sts.
Philipson, Rev. David, 852 Lincoln Ave.
Pritz, Sidney E., 909 Sycamore.
Ransohoff, Mrs. Joseph, Vernon Pl.
Schmidlapp, J. G., Board of St. Charities.
*Senior, Max, Mitchell Bldg.
Spring, Deaconess Anna H., 300 Broadway.
Strauss, Mrs. Laura, 3470 Knott St., Avondale.
Thayer, Rev. George A., 304 Oak St.
Thompson, Miss Mary C., Mt. Auburn.
Weakley, Rev. H. C., 3435 Highland Place, Avondale.
White, J. O., 308 Front St.

Cleveland.

Barnett, Gen. James, 697 Euclid Ave.
Bellamy, George A., 345 Orange St.
Cadwallader, Starr, 18 Nantucket St.
Cleveland Assoc. Char., 309 Spring St.
Cooley, Rev. Harris R., 73 Bolton St.
Emde, Fred C., City Hosp.
Fisher, John F., Supt. Chil. Aid Society.
Gries, Rabbi Moses J., 45 Oakdale St.
Henry, E. J., 64 Percival St.
Jackson, James F., Supt. Assoc. Char., 309 Spring St.
Johnson, Miss Matilda L., 260 Euclid Ave.
Kline, Virgil P., Mem. Bd. of St. Char.
Lowman, Dr. John H., 441 Prospect St.
Marks, Martin A., 1742 Broadway.
*Mather, Mrs. Samuel, 331 Euclid Ave.
Newman, A. S., 293 Woodlawn Ave.

* Sustaining members.

Perkins, Douglas, 907 Prospect St.
Ranney, Hon. Henry C., Bd. State Char.
Rawson, Mrs. M. E., 508 Russell Ave.
Shurtleff, G. K., Y. M. C. A.
*Walton, J. W., 161 River St.
Wilmott, Miss E. Louise, 1904 Woodland Ave. S. E.
*Wolfenstein, Dr. S., Ph. D., Jewish Orphan Asylum.

OKLAHOMA.

Ramsay, Mrs. R. W., Guthrie.

OREGON.

Candiani, Dr. Chas. F., 46 No. 5th St., Portland.
Chapman, Mrs. C. C., 344 E. 7th St., Portland.
Eggert, Mrs. F., Hobart and Curtis St., Portland.
Eliot, Rev. T. L., Portland.
Evans, Mrs. Sarah A., Oswego.
*Failing, Miss Mary F., Fifth and Taylor Sts., Portland.
Gardner, W. T., Box 677, Portland.
Mears, Mrs. William Allen, 241 N. 22nd St., Portland.
Miller, Dr. Byron E., 303 The Dekum, Portland.
Sitton, Mrs. L. W., 493 Yamhill St., Portland.
Spalding, Miss Helen F., 493 Yamhill St., Portland.
Strong, Thomas N., Portland.
Thompson, Dr. Mary, 428 6th St., Portland.
Trumbull, Mrs. Millie R., 821 Corbett St., Portland.
Walpole, Wm. R., 305 Jefferson St., Sec. City Board of Charities, Portland.
*Wheelwright, W. D., Portland.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Aikens, Miss Charlotte A., Columbia Hospital, Penn. and Trenton Sts., Pittsburg.
Allen, Edward E., Supt. Inst. for the Blind, Overbrook.
Bachman, Mrs. Frank H., Jenkintown.
Baker, Dr. Jane R., Embraville.
Barnard, J. Lynn, 108 Greenwich Ave., Lansdowne.
*Biddle, Mrs. Charles, Andalusia.
Black, Miss Elizabeth, West Chester.
Booth, George M., Chester.
Boyle, Patrick C., Oil City.
Brown, Mrs. Cyrus E., 406 Somerset St., Johnstown.
*Buchanan, J. I., Conestoga Bldg., Pittsburg.
Burbanks. W. H., The Rectory, St. Peter's Church, Phoenixville.
Campbell, Mrs. Ellis Lewis, Wayne, Dela. Co.
Chace, Miss Edith P., Carnegie Library, Pittsburg.
Clark, Mrs. Charles Heber, The Pines, Consohocken.
Cole, Rev. J. Thompson, Ogontz.
Coles, Rev. Roberts, Jenkintown.
Cowan, Miss Irene, Maple Heights, Pittsburg.
Dixon, Mrs. Edwin J., Ardmore.
Dixon, Mrs. Samuel G., Ardmore.
Easton Charity Organ. Soc., 218 Ferry St., Easton.
Eaton, Miss Sarah Ormsby, 1222 Resaca Place, Allegheny.
Ely, Miss Gertrude S., Bryn Mawr.
Emmert, D., Huntingdon.
Essick, Wm. S., Reading.
Fitzsimmons, Dr. Thomas C., Wilkes-Barre.
Fuller, Frederick, 416 Vine St., Scranton.
Garrett, John B., Rosemont.
Gaskill, Miss Mary Naomi, Swarthmore.
Gawthrop, Henry, Swarthmore.
Gibbons, Mrs. Wm. H., Box 478, Ardmore.
Griswold, H. J., 1527 Garfield Ave., Allegheny.
Hamilton, Charles S., Visiting Agt., House of Refuge, Glen Mills.
Hartshorne, Miss Amy Y., Merion Station.
Heberling, James L., Redington, Northampton Co.
Heberling, James Struther, Easton.
Horton, C. B., Forbes and 6th Ave., Pittsburg.
Johnstown, Dr. Wm. M., Allegheny.
Kemp, Mrs. Agnes, 518 Walnut Lane, Swarthmore.
*Kisner, Elliott P., Hazleton.
Lancaster Char. Soc. 44 E. Chestnut St., Lancaster.
Leeds, Miss Deborah C., Westchester.
LeMoyne, Miss Madeline, 49 E. Meriden St., Washington.
Lewis, Mrs. Edwin O., 39th and Chestnut Sts., Hamilton Court.
Lewis, Miss Lydia C., Lansdowne.
Lippincott, Miss Mary A., Wyncote.
Lloyd, Miss Elizabeth, Lansdowne.
Longstreth, Wm. C., Haverford.
*Lovell, Mrs. Mary F., Wyncote.
McCord, Miss Anna E., 1119 Allegheny Ave., Allegheny.
McKean, Mrs. Henry P., Penllyn.
Mahoney Joseph D., Avery and Nelson Sts., Allegheny.
Meeker, Miss Edna G., Woods Rim Indus. Home, Allegheny.
Merritt, Mrs. Daniel S., Abington.
Miller, Mrs. John, Wayne.
Milligan, Rev. John L., Allegheny.
Montgomery, Mrs. Alice B., Probation Officer, Court House, Pittsburg.
More, Rev. Wilson T., Womelsdorf.
*Murdock, Dr. J. Moorhead, Polk, Venango Co.
Mussey, Henry A., Bryn Mawr.
Nibecker, F. H., A. M., Supt. House of Refuge, Glen Mills.
Nibecker, Mrs. F. H., Glen Mills.
Penn, W. F., Supt. Pa. Reform Sch., Morganza.
Perot, Mrs. Effingham, Ardmore.
Quintinian, Brother, Pawling.
Randall, Miss Ellen M., Langhorne.
Rankin, Mrs. H. L., Central Hotel, Uniontown.
*Ripple, Ezra H., Scranton.
Robbins, Mrs. Francis L., 808 Sherman Ave., Allegheny.
*Roberts, Mrs. Charles, Haverford.
*Roberts, Mrs. Emily L., Box 215, Malvern.
Scott, Miss Florence B., Bala.
Sharpe, Miss Elizabeth M., 80 W. River St., Wilkes-Barre.
Shaw, Dr. James P., 1634 5th Ave., Pittsburg.

* Sustaining members.

*Shrigley, John M., Williamson School.
Simpson, Mrs. Wm. Jr., Ingeborg, Overbrook.
Sisters of the Blessed Sacrament, Maud P. O.
Small, Samuel, York.
Stone, Mrs. Mary E., Hazelton.
Thomas, Miss M. Cary, Bryn Mawr.
Thompson, Rev. W. H., 719 Ferguson Bldg., Pittsburg.
Walsh, Miss Mary L., 225 Upland Way, Wayne.
Webster, Charles E., South Bethlehem.
West, Newton P., Pres. Asso. Char., Swarthmore.
Weston, Mrs. S. Burns, Merion Station.
Wickersham, Miss E. O., 6404 Howe St., Pittsburg.
Widle, Charles A., Tressler Orphans' Home, Loysville.
Williams, Albert B., Jenkintown.
Williams, W. R., Marshalson, Boyce.
Williard, Miss Sue, 977 Philadelphia St., Indiana.
Wines, Dr. F. H., Scranton.
Wood, Miss Rachel Biddle, Consohocken.
Yundt, Rev. Thomas M., 210 Windsor St., Reading.

Philadelphia.

Abbey, Dr. Charlotte, 204 So. 7th St.
Abbott, Dr. A. C., 610 City Hall.
Abbott, Mrs. A. C., 4229 Baltimore Ave.
Adams, Miss Maud, 204 S. 7th St.
Adamson, Rev. C. E., 623 Catherine St.
Arnold, Miss Miriam K., 41st and Parkside Ave.
Ashburner, Miss Elizabeth A., The Newport, 16th and Spruce Sts.
Ashman, W. N., 4400 Spruce St.
Atkinson, Miss Elizabeth A., 4106 Locust St.
Bacon, Miss Anne, 5337 Knox St., Germantown.
Baggs, Miss Mary N., 613 N. 8th St.
Baily, Mrs. Charles Winter, 922 Clinton St.
*Baily, J. L., 15 Bank St.
Banfield, Miss Maud, Supt. Polyclinic Hospital.
Barnes, W. H., 256 Genl. Office, P. R. R.
*Barney, Charles D., 122 So. 4th St.
Bartholomew, Miss Frances R., 922 Locust St.
Bartlett, J. Henry, 234 N. 20th St.
Bell, Miss Emily, 1428 Spruce St.
Bender, Miss Rosamond K., 110 S. 17th St.
Berkowitz, Rev. Henry, 1539 N. 33rd St.
Bickley, Rev. George H., D. D., 110 N. 17th St.
Biddle, Mrs. A., 1821 DeLaney Place.
*Biddle, Cadwalader, Sec. State Bd. of Char., 1125 Sanson St.
Biddle, Charles, 505 Chestnut St.
Biddle, Miss Constance E., 1104 Spruce St.
Biddle, Miss Elizabeth, 2001 DeLaney Pl.
*Biddle, Mrs. George, 1104 Spruce St.
Biddle, Miss Sarah, 1326 Spruce St.
Biddle, Wm. F., 31 Westview St., Germantown.
Birdsall, Wm. W., 1723 Mt. Vernon St.
*Blakiston, Miss Emma, 2042 Chestnut St.
Blakiston, Miss Mary, 2042 Chestnut St.
Blankenburg, Miss Lucretia L., 214 W. Logan Sq.
Bond, Rev. Charles H., 631 Chestnut St.
Bonnell, Henry H., 1505 Land Title Bldg.
Boyer, Mrs. H. R., 4602 Baltimore Ave.
Bradford, Miss Elizabeth, 1628 Walnut St.
*Bradford, R. Porter, 146 W. Lehigh Ave.
Bradford, Mrs. R. Porter, 146 W. Lehigh Ave.
Bradford, S. W. K., 146 W. Lehigh Ave.
Branson, Dr. Mary, 1719 Arch St.
Brazier, Miss E. Josephine, 1803 Pine St.
Bryant, Henry G., 2013 Walnut St.
Buoy, Mrs. Charles W., 906 Pine St.
Burk, Miss M. J., 1510 Lombard St.
Burnham, Miss Mary A., 3401 Powelton Ave.
Butcher, Mrs. Howard, 206 So. 42nd St.
Cadbury, Miss Emma, 1502 Green St.
Carpenter, Miss Elizabeth, 1225 Spruce St.
Carryl, Miss Elizabeth S., 316 S. 10th St.
Carson, Mrs. Hampton L., 1033 Spruce St.
Carter, John Pim, 24th and Bainbridge Sts.
Carter, Mrs. Wm. T., 2116 Walnut St.
Chandler, Mrs. S. M., 249 S. 16th St.
Chapin, John B., 4401 Market St.
Chase, Dr. Robert H., Friends Asylum, Frankford.
Chew, Mrs. S., 1716 Walnut St.
Children's Aid So., 321 S. 12th St.
*Civic Club of Phila., 1615 Walnut St.
*Clark, C. M., 321 Chestnut St.
*Clark, Mrs. Edward Walter, Chestnut Hill.
Clarkson, Miss G. A., 3246 Chestnut St.
Clement, A. W., Bethesda Home, Chestnut Hill.
Cobb, Mrs. M. E. R., 3210 Summer St., Germantown.
*Cochran, Miss Fanny T., 131 S. 22nd St.
*Cochran, Miss Mary N., 131 S. 22nd St.
Cohn, Mrs. S. Belle, 730 Arch St.
Colesberry, Miss J. W., St. Martha's Home, 2029 S. 8th St.
College Settlement, 433 Christian St.
*Collins, Henry H., 226 Columbia Ave.
Collins, Henry Jr., 1712 Locust St.
*Converse, John H., 500 N. Broad St.
Coons, Mrs. Eva, 1510 Girard Ave.
*Cope, Francis R. Jr., E. Washington Lane, Germantown.
Cope, Porter F., 4806 Chester Ave.
Cope, Mrs. Walter, E. Johnson St., Germantown.
Craven, Mrs. David T., 1522 N. 17th St.
Crawford, Andrew W., 701-4 Stephen Girard Bldg.
Crouter, A. L. E., Supt. Sch. for Deaf, Mt. Airy.
Crowe, Dr. W. W., 1607 So. 22nd St.
Cutting, Mrs. Margaret, 1331 Pine St.
Dallett, Miss Ada, 4628 Chester Ave.
Damon, Alexander M., 14 S. Broad St
Dana, Rev. Stephen W., 3925 Walnut St.
Davies, Miss Anna F., 433 Christian St.
Davis, Dr. Edwin P., 250 So. 21st St.
Davis, Mrs. H. C., 1822 Pine St.
*Davis, Henry L. Jr., 423 W. Stafford St., Germantown.

* Sustaining members.

Davis, Mrs. Henry L. Jr., 423 W. Stafford St., Germantown.
Davis, Miss Lucy, 1822 Pine St.
Day, Mrs. Frank Miles, Allen's Lane, Mt. Airy.
Death, Miss Minnie H., 3605 Spring Garden St.
Delk, Rev. Edwin Heyl, 630 N. Broad St.
Denison, Mrs. H. S., 1400 Pine St.
Dewees, Arthur M., 1428 N. Bouvier St.
Dewees, Miss S. J., 4657 Penn St., Frankford.
Dickson, Mrs. Samuel, 901 Clinton St.
Dickson, W. J., 404 Girard Bldg.
Doak, Miss Ethel B., 1502 N. 15th St.
D'Oliber, Franklin W., Marine & Merchant Bldg.
Dominick, Rev. Brother, 505 So. 9th St.
Donohugh, Miss E. E., Shawmont Ave., Roxborough.
Doriss, Miss Adelaide, 220 W. Coulter St., Germantown.
Dornan, Mrs. Robert, 1505 N. 16th St.
Doyle, Michael Francis, Land Title Bldg.
Dreer, Edwin Greble, 1520 Spruce St.
Dreer, Mrs. Fred Annan, 1520 Spruce St.
DuBois, Patterson, 401 S. 40th St.
Duffy, Rev. J. P., 5018 Race St.
Duhring, Rev. Herman L., D. D., 225 So. 3rd St.
Dunning, Miss Elizabeth Roe, School for Blind, 63rd and Lancaster Ave.
Easton, W. O., 4507 Regent St.
Eicholz, Adolph, 2125 Spring Garden St.
Eisenbrown, Wm., 1407 Filbert St.
Ellis, Mrs. G. W., 343 So. 18th St.
Elwyn, Alfred L., 1422 Walnut St.
Estabrook, Harold Kelsey, 115 So. 22nd St.
Evening Home and Library Assn, 25 So. Van Relt St.
Falconer, Mrs. Martha P., 900 N. 22nd St.
Falkner, Miss Grace, 3310 Arch St.
Faries, Miss Anna H., 2007 Walnut St.
*Farr, Miss Clara E., 4603 Cedar Ave.
Farr, Mrs. Hannah B., 4603 Cedar Ave.
*Fels, Samuel S., 3640 Chestnut St.
*Fels, Mrs. Samuel S., 3640 Chestnut St.
*Fetteralf, Dr. A. H., Pres. Girard Col.
Fife, Dr. C. A., 1927 Chestnut St.
Fisher, Miss E. W., 1502 Pine St.
*Fleischner, Miss Helen, 2220 Green St.
Flick, Dr. Lawrence F., 738 Pine St.
Flick, Mrs. Lawrence F., 738 Pine St.
Foss, Cyrus D. Jr., 927 Weightman Bldg.
Foss, Mrs. Cyrus D., 2043 Arch St.
Foss, Miss Helen, 2043 Arch St.
Fowler, Miss Bertha, Supt. Deaconess Home, 611 Vine St.
*Fox, Miss Hannah, 339 S. Broad St.
Francis, Miss Vida H., 1420 Bellevue-Stratford Hotel.
Franklin, Miss Emma B., The Blenheim.
Frazin, Mrs. Wm. W., 250 So. 18th St.
Frederick Douglas Memorial Hospital, 1432 Lombard St.
Fretz, Tobias L., 1733 N. Front St.
Fulton, Mrs. R. H., 3420 Hamilton St.
*Garrett, Mrs. Elizabeth W., Logan.
Garrett, Francis A., Logan.
Garrett, Miss Mary S., Belmont and Monument Ave.
Gerhard, Albert P., 108 So. 4th St.
Gimbel, Jacob, 884 N. 6th St.
*Gorman, James E., 251 E. Girard Ave.
Grabfelder, S., Mariner & Merchant Bldg.
Grant, Mrs. W. S. Jr., 2202 St. James Pl.
Greely, Antoinette, 708 Spruce St.
Griscom, Miss Lucy M., 253 S. 17th St.
Gucker, Mrs. Franklin T., 3420 Hamilton St.
Gummey, Rev. H. R., 163 W. Penn St.
Gunnell, Miss Caroline H., 621 Spruce St.
Hackenburg, Wm. B., 612 Arch St.
Hacker, Mrs. Charles, 1820 Rittenhouse Sq.
Hall, George W., 1130 Arch St.
Hall, James P., Supt. Bedford St. Mission, 617 Kater St.
Hamilton, Miss Agnes, 144 W. Lehigh Ave.
Hancock, Miss Caroline, 634 Race St.
Hare, Miss Elizabeth C., 2308 Delancy Pl.
Harrison, Alfred C., 400 Chestnut St.
Harte, Dr. Richard H., 1503 Spruce St.
*Hatfield, Dr. Charles J., 258 S. 18th St.
*Hatfield, Mrs. Charles J., 258 S. 18th St.
Hawes, Rev. Oscar B., 5224 Greene St., Germantown.
Hawke, Dr. W. W., 34th and Spruce St.
Hayes, James A., Bailey Bldg.
Hayes, Miss Janet, Front and Ellsworth Sts.
Hazard, J. F., 26th and Susquehanna Ave.
Heacock, Ellwood, 2027 N. College Ave.
Helfrich, H. B., 415 Chestnut St.
Herzberg, Max, Commonwealth Bldg.
Heston, Charles B., 1405 Oxford Rd.
Hill, Rev. Simeon C., Gowen Ave., Mt. Airy.
Hinckley, Mrs. Robert H., 127 N. 19th St.
Hirsh, Mrs. A. B., 1711 Diamond St.
Home for Destitute Colored Children, 54th and Berks St.
Hoyt, Wayland, 3604 Chestnut St.
Hunt, Miss Marianne J., 814 S. 10th St.
Ingram, Wm. S., 729 N. 16th St.
Innes, Rev. Robert F., 4400 Baltimore Ave.
Jastrow, Mrs. Morris J., 248 S. 23rd St.
*Jayne, H. LeBarre, 505 Chestnut St.
Jeanes, Henry S., 2012 Spruce St.
*Jenkins, Charles F., 1024 Race St.
Jenks, Dr. Horace H., 920 Clinton St.
*Jenks, John Story, 1937 Arch St.
Jenks, Mrs. Wm. F., 920 Clinton St.
Jurist, Mrs. Louise, 916 N. Broad St.
*Justice, Miss Anna, 2025 Pine St.
*Kane, Francis Fisher, 1832 Land Title Bldg.
Kaufman, Mrs. M. A., 2110 Spring Garden St.
Keating, J. Percy, 701 Arcade Bldg.
Keen, Miss Dora, 1729 Chestnut St.
Kelsey, Prof. Carl, Logan Hall., Univ. of Pa.
Kelsey, Miss Charlotte, Chestnut Hill.
Kemp, Mary V., 613 N. 8th St.
Kent, Miss E. B., 433 Christian St.
*Kimber, Miss N. B., 535 Church Lane, Germantown.
Kimber, Mrs. T. Wm., 535 Church Lane, Germantown.
Kline, Mahlon N., 429 Arch St.
Kohn, A. M., 1847 N. 17th St.

* Sustaining members.

Landreth, Mrs. W. Linton, 1705 Rittenhouse Sq.
*Laughlin, Samuel, 34th and Pine Sts.
Lea, Miss, 2000 Walnut St.
*Leeds, Barclay R., 3221 N. 17th St.
*Leeds, Mrs. Mary M., 3221 N. 17th St.
Levy, Louis E., 854 N. 8th St.
*Lewis, Theodore J., 212 N. 34th St.
Lewis, Mrs. Theodore J., 2121 N. 34th St.
Lindsay, Samuel McCune, Ph. D., Univ. of Pa.
Lippincott, Miss Susanna W., 460 N. 7th St.
Little, George E., 1326 Arch St.
Longstreth, Wm. W., 427 Walnut St.
Love, Miss Grace, 433 Christian St.
Lowber, Mrs. Henry S., Mt. Airy.
Lybrand, Mrs. W. M., The Clinton.
McCarthy, Mrs. Henry J., 3801 Walnut St.
McCreight, Dr. Robert, 1340 E. Montgomery Ave.
McCurdy, Irwin P., D. D., 538 So. 49th St.
McHenry, Rev. H. Cresson, 225 So. 3rd St.
McMurtrie, Miss Mary D., 1104 Spruce St.
MacAlister, Dr. James, 32nd and Chestnut Sts.
*Mackay-Smith, Rt. Rev. Alexander, 251 So. 22nd St.
Madeira, Mrs. Louis C., School Lane, Germantown.
Marsh, Benjamin C., 415 S. 15th St.
Marshall, Dr. Clara, 258 S. 16th St.
Martin, Mrs. Edward, 1506 Locust St.
Martin, Mrs. J. Willis, 1709 Walnut St.
Mason, Miss Jane G., School House Lane, Germantown.
Mason, Miss Mary Taylor, School House Lane, Germantown.
Mayer, Miss Marie, 619 N. 6th St.
Meigs, Miss Ann L., 1815 Pine St.
Miller, N. Dubois, 505 Chestnut St.
Miller, Mrs. Wm. H., 1712 N. 18th St.
Minot, Miss Sarah T., 708 Spruce St.
Mitchell, Dr. J. Nicholas, 1505 Spruce St.
Mitchell, Mrs. J. Nicholas, 1505 Spruce St.
Mohr, Dr. C., Oak Lane.
Monroe, Miss S. Margaret, 1433 N. 17th St.
Mumford, Joseph P., 721 Spruce St.
Mumford, Mrs. Mary E., 721 Spruce St.
Murrell, Miss M. E., 66 N. 36th St.
Murta, Miss Ellen, 900 N. 22nd St.
Muzzey, Frank R., 1803 Chestnut St.
Needlework Guild of America, 110 S. 17th St.
Neibel, F. R., 415 S. 15th St.
Neisser, Miss Emma R., 1724 N. Bouvier St.
*Newbold, Mrs. Anna B., 201 S. 20th St.
*Newbold, Arthur E., 5th and Chestnut Sts.
*Newbold, John S., 113 S. 5th St.
*Newbold, Mrs. Virginia, 113 S. 5th St.
Newlin, Miss Katherine, 1510 Arch St.
Newlin, Miss Mary S., 1510 Arch St.
Newlin, Miss Sarah, 1510 Arch St.
Nichols, Mrs. H. S. Prentiss, 346 Pelham Road, Germantown.
Nolan, Edward J., Academy of Natural Science, Logan Square.
Norris, Mrs. Rollin, 917 Pine St.
Oakley, Mrs. Imogene B., 1220 Spruce St.
Ohl, Rev. J. F., 25 N. 50th St.
Oliver, L. Stauffer, 826 Land Title Bldg.
Page, Mrs. H. W., 717 Locust St.
Page, S. Davis, West End Trust Bldg.
Pancoast, Charles E., 316-320 Chestnut St.
Parrish, Miss Helen L., 313 South 10th St.
Patten, Simon N., Ph. D., 202 S. 41st St.
Patten, Mrs. Simon N., 202 S. 41st St.
*Paul, J. Rodman, 505 Chestnut St.
*Pearsall, Miss H. W., 1615 Arch St.
Pearsall, Miss Mary, 1615 Arch St.
Pemberton, Mrs. H. Jr., 1008 Clinton St.
*Pepper, B. Franklin, 1438 Land Title Bldg.
Pfalzer, Mrs. M., 1524 N. 16th St.
Pickering, Mrs. J. L., 704 S. Washington St.
Platt, Miss Laura N., 237 S. 18th St.
Pohlman, Mrs. August, 5143 Race St.
Puncheon, Mrs. E. A., 5103 Pulaski Ave., Germantown.
Quintard, Miss Lily W., 1340 Lombard St.
Raine, W. P., 3604 Walnut St.
Ramsey, Miss Ethel, 395 City Hall.
Randolph, Miss Anna, 2002 Arch St.
*Randolph, Mrs. Evan, 2002 Arch St.
Rees, Miss Josephine L., 1800 Green St.
*Richardson, Charles, 704 N. American Bldg.
Richmon, Miss Viola, 652 N. 15th St.
Richmond, Miss Mary E., S. E. cor. Walnut and 11th Sts.
Roberts, Rev. James, D. D., 4318 Pine St.
Robinson, Rev. L. M., 5000 Woodland Ave.
Rogers, James S., 605 Real Estate Trust Bldg.
Rogers, John J. S., 3rd and Walnut Sts.
Rolb, Miss Ella, 1921 Chestnut St.
Rolph, Wm. T., R. G. Dun & Co.
*Rosengarten, Miss Fanny, 1704 Walnut St.
*Rosengarten, J. G., 1704 Walnut St.
Ross, Ernest N., 1300 Land Title Bldg.
Ross, W. L., 410 Gaskill St.
Rowe, Prof. L. S., Univ. of Pa., Logan Hall.
Rule, Miss Amy Jean, 21st and N. College Ave.
Russell, Mrs. Sara A., 1721 Jefferson St.
*Ryan, Most Rev. P. J., Archbishop's House, Logan Square.
Sanders, Miss Georgiana J., Polyclinic Hospital.
Sanford, Miss Caroline H., 708 Spruce St.
*Scattergood, Thomas, 3515 Powelton Ave.
Scattergood, Mrs. T., 3515 Powelton Ave.
Schoff, Mrs. Frederick, 3418 Baring Ave.
Scott, Wm. H., 1211 Clover St.
Selig, Mrs. Solomon, 1417 Erie Ave.
Sharpless, Dr. Anna P., 3926 Chestnut St.
Shelmire, Mrs. W. H., 254 S. 16th St.
Sherwood, H. M., 1937 Mt. Vernon St.
Shinn, Jas. T., 313 S. 41st St.
Shipley, Mrs. Murray, 2128 DeLancy St.
Shoemaker, Comly B., 603 Harrison Bldg.
Shoemaker, Mrs. Martha B., 1715 Green St.

* Sustaining members.

Shoemaker, Miss Martha L., 1715 Green St.
Sibley, Miss Florence, 235 S. 18th St.
Simms, James Hay, 512 Walnut St.
Simpson, Miss Ida, 906 Pine St.
Simpson, Miss S. Elizabeth, 906 Pine St.
Simpson, Thomas D., 505 Chestnut St.
Sinkler, Miss Julia U., 1606 Walnut St.
Sinnott, Mrs. James F., 1816 Rittenhouse Sq.
Sites, Miss Charlotte, Aldine Hotel.
Smedley, Franklin, Frankford.
*Smith, Edward B., 511 Chestnut St.
Smith, Ephraim, 1110 Pine St.
Smith, Miss Esther Morton, 5317 Germantown Ave.
Smith, J. Somers Jr., 212 4th St.
Snow, Miss Helen H., 1015 S. 6th St.
Sower, Miss Sarah C., 1931 Chestnut St.
*Spalding, Miss Katherine A., 345 S. 18th St.
*Spear, Mrs. James, The Aldine.
Spellissy, P. H., 110 S. 18th St.
Spicer, R. Barclay, 140 N. 15th St.
Spiegel, Charles A., 164 Maplewood Ave.
Spiegle, Dr. Grace E., 2115 N. 12th St.
Stadelman, Charles N., 417 N. Randolph St.
Standish, Miss Ellen M., 2713 N. 9th St.
Starr, Mrs. Louis, 1818 So. Rittenhouse Sq.
Steen, Rev. W. S., 218 S. 44th St.
Stewart, Miss Margretta S., 1725 Pine St.
Stewart, Mrs. Wm. S., 1725 Pine St.
String, Mrs. Charles J., 2308 Delancy Pl.
Stuart, George H., Land Title Bldg.
Test, Dr. David D, Penn. Hosp.
Thomas, Mrs. Alice E., 16 S. 20th St.
Thomas, Miss Lydia S., 3724 Hamilton St.
Tobey, Frank R., 3942 Spruce St.
Towson, Charles R., 41st and Westminster Ave.
Traveller's Aid Society, 124 S. 12th St.
Tribou, Rev. David Howard, U. S. Naval Home.
*Turner, Mrs. Charles P., 1506 Walnut St.
Tyler, W. Graham, 3638 Chestnut St.
*Vaux, George Jr, 404 Girard Bldg.
Vaux, Miss Mary M., 1715 Arch St.
Vaux, Wm. S. Jr., Bailey Bldg.
Wagner, Mrs. Wm. M., 1310 S. 47th St.
Walk, Dr. Jas. W., 737 Corinthian Ave.
Walker, Charles T., 7th and Katharine Sts.
Wallerstein, David, 607 Land Title Bldg.
Walsh, Dr. Joseph, 732 Pine St.
Wanamaker, Mrs. Mary B., 2032 Walnut St.
Warner, G. M., 462 Bourse.
Weaver, Hon. John, Mayor of Philadelphia.
Welsh, Miss Helen B., 319 N. 33rd St.
Weston, S. Burns, 1415 Locust St.
Wharton, Miss Mary B., 2141 Bainbridge St.
Wharton, Mrs. Rodman, 910 Clinton St.
Wharton, Miss Susan P., 910 Clinton St.
Whitaker, Rt. Rev. O. W., 12th and Walnut Sts.
Whitall, Mrs. John M., 512 Church Lane, Germantown.
Whitman, Rev. B. L., 800 Corinthian Ave.
Whitney. James S., 1015 Betz Bldg.
Whitney, Mrs. James S., 1015 Betz Bldg.
Whitney, W. Beaumont, 146 W. Walnut Lane, Germantown.
Wilbur, Miss Emily, 151 Fairmount Ave.
Williams, Miss Helen E., 309 S. 15th St.
Williams, Talcott, 916 Pine St.
Williams, Mrs. Talcott, 916 Pine St.
Wilson, Miss Helen R., 721 Spruce St.
Wilson, Dr. W. P., 34th and Vintage Ave.
Wing, Asa S., 4028 Walnut St.
Wistar, E. M., 908 Provident Bldg.
Wistar, Mrs. E. M., 908 Provident Bldg.
Wister, Miss F. A., 1112 Spruce St.
*Wister, Mrs. Owen Jr., 913 Pine St.
Wolf, Albert, 4218 Parkside Ave.
Wolf, Louis, 608 Chestnut St.
Women's Pa. S. P. C. A., 36 S. 18th St.
Wood, Rev. Charles, 1701 Delancy St.
*Wood, Miss Julia Leaming, 410 S. 15th St.
Wood, Miss Juliana, 1620 Locust St.
Woodruff, Clinton Rogers, 2219 Spruce St.
*Woodward, Dr. George, Children's Aid Soc.
*Woodward, Mrs. George, Chestnut Hill
Woolman, Edward, 44 N. 38th St.
Y. W. C. A., 18th and Arch Sts.

PORTO RICO.

Goenago, Dr. Francisco R. de., Supt. Insane Asylum, San Juan.
Willoughby, Wm. F., Treasury Dept., San Juan.

RHODE ISLAND.

Barney, Rev. Edward M., 315 High St.
Betton, Miss Elizabeth L., 138 Gibbs Ave.
*Boucher, Philippe, 14 Cumberland St.
Burdick, J. Trueman, Treas. Newport Hosp., Newport.
Carpenter, Mrs. F. W., 276 Angell St., Providence.
Chace, Miss Lydia G., Butler Exchange, Providence.
Chadwick, Mrs. F. E., Twin Oaks, Newport.
Charity Organization Soc., 263 Thames St., Newport.
Cheney, Mrs. Edward S., 201 Pond St., Providence.
Conyngton, Miss Mary K., 332 Butler Exchange, Providence.
Dealey, Prof. James Q., Brown University, Providence.
Eastman, Dr. James H., Howard.
Easton, Christopher, 152 Belleview Ave., Newport.
*Emmons, Arthur B., Newport.
Ewen, Rev. Charles H., Chaplain R. I. St. Institution, Providence.
Ewen, Mrs. C. H., Howard.
*Gammell, William, 170 Hope St.
Gardiner, Miss Edna R., Providence.
Gardner, Henry B., 54 Stimson Ave., Providence.
Gardner, Miss Mary S., 273 Bowen Ave., Providence.
Goddard, R. H. I., Providence.
Green, Miss Eleanor B., 14 John St., Providence.
*Hunter, Miss Anna F., 20 Kay St., Newport.
Lawton, George R., Tiverton.
McCusker, James F., Pontiac.
Minnick, Mrs. James, 261 Warren Ave., East Providence.

* Sustaining members.

Minnick, James, 332 Butler Exchange, Providence.
Olney, Frank F., Providence.
Owen, Miss Hannah A., 228 Main St., Pawtucket.
Particular Council, St. Vincent de Paul, 53 Cypress St., Providence.
Peckham, Charles H., Sec. Board of State Charities, Providence.
Read, Walter A., Glocester.
Rodman, Robert F., North Kingston.
Rousmaniere, Rev. Edmund S., 97 Angell St., Providence.
Shephard, Henry H., Bristol.
*Sherman, Wm. Watts, Newport.
Tillinghast, Miss Charlotte L., 260 Angell St., Providence.
Waterman, Thomas W., Providence.
Watson, John J. Jr., Jamestown.
Whittemore, Gilbert E., City Hall, Providence.
Wightman, Walter R., Agt. State Char. and Corr., Providence.
Wilson, Ellery H., East Providence.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Jamison, A. T., Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood.

TENNESSEE.

Davis, A. F., 8 S. 2nd St., Memphis.
Hammond, Mrs. John D., 200 Farrell Ave., Nashville.
Herman, Mrs. Carrie, 313 N. High St., Nashville.
Kilvington, W. C., Industrial School, Nashville.
*Maynard, Jas., Brookside Mills, Knoxville.
Winchester, Rev. James R., D. D., 213 Duver St., Memphis.
Yandell, Mrs. Lunsford P., 2304 Elliston Place, Nashville.

TEXAS.

Brackenridge, G. W., San Antonio.
Buckner, Rev. R. C., D. D., Buckner Orphans' Home, Dallas.
Clemens, W., New Braunfels.
Moore, Miss Marion I., 211 Ave. D., San. Antonio.
Saylor, Miss F., Gaston Bldg., Dallas.

UTAH.

Allison, E. M. Sr., Ogden.
Brown, Willis, Judge Juv. Ct., Salt Lake City.
Conroy, Dr. E. M., St. Indus. School, Ogden.
Dusenberry, Mrs. Ida S., Provo.
Evans, T. B., State Indus. School, Ogden.
Joseph, H. S., State Indus. School, Ogden.
Talmage, James E., Salt Lake City.
Thomas, H. H., State Indus. School, Ogden.
Woods, M. M., Supt. Char. Assn., Salt Lake City.

VERMONT.

Lawton, Dr. S. E., 75 Linden St., Brattleboro.
Wright, Rev. J. Edward, 19 Baldwin St., Montpelier.

* Sustaining members.

VIRGINIA.

Arundel, Miss Ada L., 212 E. Franklin St., Richmond.
Buchanan, Rev. James, 1408 E. Franklin St., Richmond.
Cabanis, Miss S. H., 108 N. 7th St., Richmond.
Davis, George B., City Hall, Richmond.
Deane, Miss S. C., 203 E. Franklin St., Richmond.
Drewry, Dr. W. F., Petersburg.
Emmons, G. L., Supt. Laurel Indus. School, School P. O.
Gilliam, Robert, Fillmore & Jefferson Sts., Petersburg.
Gulley, Miss A., 108 N. 7th St., Richmond.
Gundry, Miss Mattie, Falls Church.
Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Hampton.
Hirsh, Isaac, Maine St., Fredericksburg.
Mastin, Rev. J. T., Methodist Orphanage, Richmond.
Robinson, Eva A., Loretta Training School, Richmond.
*Roper, John L., Norfolk.
Sharpe, Arthur B., 19th and Main Sts., Richmond.
Vincent, W. H., Capron.

WASHINGTON.

Covington, Rev. Luther J., 323 New York Block, Seattle.
Frater, A. W., Judge Juv. Court, Seattle.
Harmon, Ulysses E., Chehalis.
Lister, Ernest, Chairman St. Bd. of Control, Olympia.
McClure, Horace, 1505 Jefferson St., Seattle.
Murray, Miss Anna H., 527 New York Bldg., Seattle.
Way'and, Miss Callista, Spokane.

WEST VIRGINIA.

Allen, Mrs. Guy R. C., Wheeling.
Archbold, C. W., Parkersburg.
Brackett, N. C., Harper's Ferry.
Brown, R. H., P. O. Box 672, Morgantown.
Dungan, Hilda M., Supt. Indus. School for Girls, Industrial.
Haddox, C. E., 818 Jefferson Ave., Moundsville.
Hammond, Rev. D. S., R. F. D. 7, Grafton.
Jones, Dr. Harriet B., 80 15th St., Wheeling.
Library, W. Va. University, Morgantown.
McBride, Rev. John, L. B. 222, Moundsville.
Randolph, Mrs. B. S., Berkeley Springs.

WISCONSIN.

Associated Charities, 416 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee.
Berry, Miss Mary J., State Indus. Sch. for Girls, Milwaukee.
Bigelow, F. G., Milwaukee.
Bowron, C. W., Green Bay.
Brown, Dr. J. F., Waupun.
Brown, Mrs. W. E., Rhinelander.
Cary, Prof. C. P., Madison.
Chynoweth, Mrs. H. W., Madison.
Clark, Harvey, Monroe.

Clark, M. C., Madison.
Coffland, J. E., Richland Centre.
Conover, Allan D., Madison.
Davidson, J. O., Madison.
Dewey, Dr. Richard, 34 Washigton St., Wauwatosa.
Dresser, Hon. L. B., St. Croix Falls.
Frelson, G., 416 Milwaukee St., Milwaukee.
Frisbee, Dr. Almah J., State Board of Control, Milwaukee.
Frost, E. W., 1201 Wells Bldg., Milwaukee.
Gordon, Dr. W. A., Northern Hospital for Insane, Winnebago.
Gorst, Dr. Charles, Mendota.
Grotophorst, Herman, Baraboo.
Hagemeister, Hon. Henry, Green Bay.
Hagenah, Wm. J., 1044 Jenifer St., Madison.
Hall, F. W., Madison.
Hobbins, Mrs. J. W., Madison.
Hutton, A. J., Supt. Indus. School for Boys, Waukesha.
Johnson, Henry, Suring, Oconto Co.
Kraege, Prof. F. G., Mazomanie.
Kurtz, Mrs. Julia, 483 Western Ave., Milwaukee.
Kusterman, Gustav, 828 Cherry St., Green Bay.
Kusterman, Oscar, 2416 Chestnut St., Milwaukee.
Lyman, Dr. W. B., St. Hospital for Insane, Mendota.
Morris, Mrs. Charles, Berlin.
Naughtin, Rev. J. M., 222 W. Main St., Madison.
Nelson, Hon. A. G., Waupaca.
Park, M. T., State Pub. School, Sparta.
Pierce, Dr. W. J., Dodgeville.
Potter, B. S., West Bend.
*Rahr, William, Manitowoc.
Robbins, Dr. M. M., R. F. D. 2, Suring.
Showalter, C. R., Janesville.
Spenceley, Hon. Calvert, Mineral Point.
Stalker, Rev. A. W., Madison.
Stevens, Senator E. E., Oshkosh.
*Stout, J. H., Menominee.
Tappins, Hon. M. J., Madison.
Town, Henry, Waupun.
Treat, Hon. N. B., Monroe.
Updyke, Rev. E. G., Madison.
Walker, Prof. E. W., Supt. School for Deaf, Delavan.
Whitehead, Hon. John M., Janesville.
Wilmarth, Dr. A. W., Supt. St. Home for F. M., Chippewa Falls.
Wiltrout, Mrs. I. B., 321 4th Ave., Eau Claire.
Youmans, Mrs. H. M., Waukesha.

BELGIUM.

Morel, Dr. Jules, Asile D'Alienees de l'Etat, Mons.

CANADA.

Armstrong, S. A., Inspector Prisons and Public Charities, Ontario, Toronto.
Bain, James, Jr., Toronto.
Boyd, Rev. Hunter, Waweig, New Brunswick.
Brown, Adam, Pres. Children's Aid Soc., Hamilton, Ont.
Burland, Jeffrey H., 9 Bleury St., Montreal.
Ferrier, Chester, Supt. Victoria Indus. School, Mimico.
Ferrier, Mrs. C., Mimico.
Gilmour, Dr. J. T., Toronto.
Hanna, Hon. W. J., Parliament Bldg., Toronto.
Keane, John, City Hall, Ottawa.
Kelso, J. J., Parliament Bldg., Toronto.
Lane, Richard H., C. O. S., 98 Bleury St., Montreal.
McMenemy, J. H., City Hall, Hamilton, Ont.
O'Sullivan, Mrs. Emma, Supt. Outdoor Relief for Women, Toronto.
Prisoner's Aid Assn. of Canada, Toronto.
Rosebrugh, Dr. A. M., 76 Prince Arthur St., Toronto.
Scott, W. L., Court House, Ottawa.
Smith, Dr. Bruce, Parliament Bldgs, Toronto.
South, C. J., Vancouver, B. C.
Taylor, Edward, City Hall, Toronto.
Walsh, Frank J., 65 Baldwin St., Toronto.
Whyte, Lt. Col. J. C., New Westminster, B. C.
Woods, Judge R. S., Chatham.

CUBA.

Berriz, Antonio M., 21 Reina St., Havana.
Berriz, Jose M., 21 Reina St., Havana.
Finley, Dr. C. E., Reina 128, Havana.
Martinez, Dr. Emilio, Neptuno St., 56, Havana.
Valdes, Dr. Juan B., 23 Corner J., Havana.

CHILE.

Montt, Dr. Pedro, Casa de Orates, Portal McClure, Santiago.

ENGLAND.

Macauley, Col. C. E., New Court, Ascot, Berks.

GERMANY.

Herzfeld, Gustav, LL. D., 37 Victoria St., Wildpark, Potsdam, Berlin S. W.

NEW ZEALAND.

MacGregor, Dr. Duncan, Wellington.

GUATEMALA.

Godoy, Jose F., Guatemala.

SWEDEN.

Salomon, Hon. Harald, Grefgatan 62 Stockholm.

* Sustaining members.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE 1907.

President.

Amos W. Butler, Indianapolis, Ind.

First Vice President.

Hugh F. Fox, Plainfield, N. J.

Second Vice President.

George Vaux, Jr., Girard Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

Third Vice President.

L. A. Rosing, St. Paul, Minn.

General Secretary.

Alexander Johnson.

Assistant Secretaries.

W. H. McClain, St. Louis, Mo.
Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.
Arthur P. Kellogg, New York.
Nathaniel G. Grasty, Baltimore.
Harold K. Estabrook, Philadelphia.
H. S. Braucher, Portland, Me.

Treasurer.

Robert J. Hoguet, New York.

Executive Committee.

Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, O.
F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.
Fred H. Wines, Scranton, Pa.
Wm. P. Letchworth, Castile, N. Y.
Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie, Grand Rapids, Mich.
H. H. Hart, Chicago.
L. C. Storrs, Lansing, Mich.
Robert Treat Paine, Boston.
Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis.
Wm. R. Stewart, New York.
Charles R. Henderson, Chicago.
Charles E. Faulkner, Minneapolis.
John M. Glenn, Baltimore.
Timothy Nicholson, Richmond, Ind.
Robert W. DeForest, New York.
Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston.
Rev. Samuel G. Smith, St. Paul.
Edward T. Devine, New York.
James Allison, Cincinnati.
Ernest P. Bicknell, Chicago.
Joseph Lee, Boston.
Hon. Julian W. Mack, Chicago.
F. L. McVey, Minneapolis.
George B. Robinson, New York.
Max Senior, Cincinnati.
Mornay Williams, New York.
Dr. Hal C. Wyman, Detroit.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alaska	Rev. Sheldon Jackson, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Arkansas	Prof. J. H. Reynolds, Fayetteville.
California	Miss Katherine C. Felton, 1308 Webster St., Oakland.
Colorado	Clarence Hagar, Sec'y, State Bd. of Charities and Correction, Denver.
Connecticut	Charles P. Kellogg, Sec'y State Bd. of Charities, Waterbury.
Delaware	Mrs. Emalea P. Warner, 1202 Delaware Ave., Wilmington.
District of Columbia	George S. Wilson, Sec. Bd. of Charities, District Bldg., Washington D. C.
Georgia	Dr. T. D. Longino, 719 Century Bldg., Atlanta.
Illinois	Wm. C. Graves, Sec. Bd. State Com., Public Char., Springfield.
Indiana	Miss Laura Greely, Statistician State Bd. of Charities, Indianapolis.
Iowa	F. S. Treat, Sec. Bd. of Control, Des Moines.
Kansas	Prof. F. W. Blackmar, Lawrence.
Kentucky	Thomas D. Osborne, Pres. Ky. St. Conf. of Char. and Corr., Louisville.
Louisiana	Michel Heymann, 5342 St. Charles Ave., New Orleans,
Maine	E. P. Wentworth, Portland.
Maryland	Nathaniel G. Grasty, Sec'y Supervisors of City Charities, Baltimore.
Massachusetts	Joseph Lee, 101 Tremont St., Boston.
Michigan	L. C. Storrs, Sec. Bd. Char. & Corr., Lansing.
Minnesota	A. W. Gutridge, 609 Baltimore Bldg., St. Paul.
Missouri	Miss Mary E. Perry, Vice-Pres. St. Bd. Char. & Corr., 12 Vandeventer Place, St. Louis.
Nebraska	C. E. Prevey, 328 S. 10th St., Lincoln.
New Hampshire	Mrs. Frank S. Streeter, 234 N. Main St., Concord.
New Jersey	Mrs. A. Van Winkle, 10 Academy St., Newark.
New Mexico	Rabbi Jacob K. Kaplin, Albuquerque.
New York	Robert W. Hill, Acting Sec. St. Bd. of Charities, Albany.
North Carolina	Miss Daisy Denson, Sec. Board of Public Charities, Raleigh.
North Dakota	Frank D. Hall, 1425 4th Ave. So., Fargo.
Ohio	H. H. Shirer, Sec. Bd. of St. Charities, Columbus.
Oklahoma	Mrs. R. W. Ramsay, Guthrie.
Oregon	W. R. Walpole, 305 Jefferson St., Portland.
Pennsylvania	Carl Kelsey, Asst. Prof. Sociology Univ. of Penna., Philadelphia.
Rhode Island	James H. Eastman, Supt. State Institutions, Howard.
Tennessee	A. F. Davis, Supt. United Char., Memphis.
Texas	Rev. R. C. Buckner, Dallas.
Utah	Mrs. Ida S. Dusenberry, Provo.
Vermont	Rev. J. Edward Wright, 19 Baldwin St., Montpelier.
Virginia	Dr. Wm. F. Drewry, Petersburg.
West Virginia	R. H. Brown, P. O. Box 692, Morgantown.
Washington	Miss Anna H. Murray, 527 New York Bldg., Seattle.
Wisconsin	Herman Grotophorst, Pres. St. Bd. of Control, Baraboo.
British Columbia	C. J. South, Vancouver.
New Brunswick	Rev. Hunter Boyd, The Manse, Waweig.
Ontario	Dr. A. M. Roseburgh, 22 Clinton St., Toronto.
Quebec	Richard H. Lane, C. O. S., 98 Bleury St., Montreal.

Others to be appointed by the Executive Committee.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

Reports from States.

Alexander Johnson, General Secretary, Chairman ex-officio.
George B. Davis, City Hall, Richmond, Va.
Miss Daisy Denson, Raleigh, N. C.
W. A. Gates, 2108 Shattuck Ave., Berkeley, Calif.
W. C. Graves, Bd. of Public Charities, Springfield, Ill.
Rutherford H. Platt, Columbus, Ohio.

State Supervision of Charitable and Correctional Agencies.

Robert W. Hebberd, Comnr. Public Char., New York, Chairman.
Mrs. Ophelia Amigh, Geneva, Ill.
C. W. Birtwell, 43 Charity Bldg., Boston.
O. K. Cushing, Bd. of State Charities, 37 Seventh Ave., San Francisco.
Dr. Charles A. Elwood, Columbia College, Columbia, Mo.
Wm. S. Friedman, Denver.
Frank D. Hall, Fargo, N. D.
C. M. Hubbard, Associated Charities, 304 Broadway, Cincinnati.
Carey J. Hunter, Raleigh, N. C.
Mrs. Mary A. Jacobson, 969 Broad St., Newark, N. J.
Miss Julia C. Lathrop, Rockford, Ill.
D. B. Price, Stevensville, Mont.
Hon. M. J. Scanlan, 51 Chambers St., New York.
W. E. Tipton, St. Bd. of Charities, Mitchell, S. D.
George S. Wilson, Bd. of Charities, Washington, D. C.
M. M. Woods, Charity Ass'n, Salt Lake City, Utah.
Dr. Hal. C. Wyman, Detroit.

Needy Families: Their Homes and Neighborhoods.

A. W. Gutridge, 609 Baltimore Bldg., St. Paul, Minn., Chairman.
Miss Ada L. Arundel, 212 E. Franklin St., Richmond, Va.
George A. Bellamy, 2723 Orange Ave S. E., Cleveland.
Robert F. Biggs, Law Bldg., Baltimore.
Nathan Bijur, 34 Nassau St., New York.
Dr. Boris D. Bogen, 965 Elleron Ave., Cincinnati.
Miss Caroline Crosby, 1616 Washington Ave., Minneapolis, Minn.
George F. Damon, 1115 Charlotte St., Kansas City, Mo.
A. F. Davis, 8 S. 2d St., Memphis, Tenn.
Mrs. H. H. Dawson, 1011 Broad St., Newark, N. J.
Charles S. Grout, 306 N. Delaware St., Indianapolis.
J. C. Logan, 209 Gould Bldg., Atlanta.
Miss Anna H. Murray, 527 New York Bldg., Seattle, Wash.
Benjamin Pettee, 43 Hawkins St., Boston.
Mrs. P. J. Toomey, 4035 W. Morgan St., St. Louis.
Charles F. Weller, 811 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Promotion of Health in Home, School and Factory.

W. H. Allen, 105 E. 22d St., New York, Chairman.
Dr. Frank Billings, State St., Chicago.
Miss M. L. Birtwell, 671 Massachusetts Ave., Cambridge, Mass.
Otto W. Davis, Sec'y Associated Char., Paterson, N. J.
Mrs. Emma Eckhouse, 400 N. Delaware St., Indianapolis.
Dr. Charles P. Emerson, Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore.
Miss Harriet Fulmer, 79 Dearborn St., Chicago.
Freeman Gowen, 1247 Congress St., Portland, Me.
Edward T. Hartman, 3 Joy St., Boston.
Miss Marie R. Jamme, 2133 Kenwood Parkway, Minneapolis.
Miss Matilda Johnson, 260 Euclid Ave., Cleveland.
Dr. S. A. Knopf, 16 W. 95th St., New York.
Dr. Walter Lindley, 1414 S. Hope St., Los Angeles.
Wm. H. McClain, 1623 Washington Ave., St. Louis.
Rev. S. P. Morris, 408 City Hall, Omaha.
Edgar Gardner Murphy, Montgomery, Alabama.

The Insane and Epileptic.

Dr. Owen Copp, 36 State House, Boston, Chairman.
Rev. J. M. Buckley, 150 Fifth Ave., New York.
Dr. G. F. Edenharter, Central Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.
Dr. H. C. Eyman, Massillon, Ohio.
Robert Gilliam, Fillmore and Jefferson Sts., Petersburg, Va.
Dr. J. L. Green, Supt. Insane Hosp., Asylum, Neb.

The Insane and Epileptic — Concluded.

Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, 3612 Grand Blvd., Chicago.
Gustav Küsterman, 828 Cherry St., Green Bay, Wis.
Dr. O. R. Long, Hospital for Insane, Ionia, Mich.
Dr. M. L. Perry, Epileptic Hospital, Parsons, Kansas.
Hon. G. S. Robinson, State House, Des Moines, Iowa.
Dr. Bruce Smith, Parliament Bldgs., Toronto.
Dr. W. P. Spratling, Sonyea, N. Y.
Dr. H. A. Tomlinson, St. Peter, Minn.

Defectives.

Dr. J. M. Murdock, Polk, Pa., Chairman.
Prof. Demarchus C. Brown, 125 Downey Ave., Indianapolis.
Miss E. E. Farrell, 8 Henry St., New York.
Dr. A. C. Jelly, 69 Newbury St., Boston.
J. W. Jones, Supt. Deaf. & Dumb Institution, Columbus, Ohio.
Dr. George Mogridge, Glenwood, Iowa.
Dr. Mary Pogue, Lake Geneva, Wis.
Dr. A. C. Rogers, Faribault, Minn.
Mrs. C. A. Weston, 10 Pleasant Ave., Portland, Me.
Dr. A. W. Wilmarth, Chippewa Falls, Wis.

Statistics.

John Koren, 784 Beacon St., Boston, Chairman.
Ernest P. Bicknell, 79 Dearborn St., Chicago.
Prof. F. W. Blackmar, Univ. of Kansas, Lawrence.
Miss Lilian Brandt, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
Frank Tucker, 105 E. 22d St., New York.
Miss Katherine C. Felton, 1308 Webster St., Oakland.
Frederick L. Hoffman, Prudential Life Insurance Co., Newark, N. J.
Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.
Frances A. Kellor, 19 E. 26th St., New York.

Children.

George L. Sehon, Louisville, Ky., Chairman.
Miss Frances G. Curtis, 28 Mt. Vernon St., Boston.
Mrs. W. G. Fairbank, Middletown, Conn.
Hon. A. W. Frater, Court House, Seattle, Wash.
Wm. T. Gardner, Supt. Boys' and Girls' Aid Soc., Portland, Ore.
C. W. Hart, St. Charles, Ill.
Rev. Brother Henry, Westchester, N. Y.
J. T. Humphries, St. Anthony, Idaho.
Rev. Walter Reid Hunt, Orange, N. J.
T. D. Hurley, 79 Dearborn St., Chicago.
J. C. Kalleen, Box 378, Jamesburg, N. J.
J. J. Kelso, Parliament Bldgs., Toronto.
Sherman C. Kingsley, 51 La Salle St., Chicago.
Benjamin C. Marsh, 415 S. 15th St., Philadelphia.
Miss L. V. North, Woman's College, Baltimore.
Fred L. Paddelford, Golden, Colo.
W. B. Sherrard, Sioux Falls, S. D.
Dr. W. H. Slingerland, 2340 E. 9th St., Des Moines, Iowa.
Seymour H. Stone, 48 Rutland St., Boston.
Henry W. Thurston, 7233 Harvard Ave., Chicago.
E. F. Tibbott, 445 Hansberry St., Germantown, Philadelphia.
Evert Jansen Wendell, 8 E. 38th St., New York.
Mrs. I. D. Wiltrout, 308 S. Barston St., Eau Claire, Wis.

Prison and Police Administration.

Joseph F. Scott, Elmira, N. Y., Chairman.
Rev. S. J. Barrows, 135 E. 15th St., New York.
A. D. Bemer, Lincoln, Neb.
N. F. Boucher, Bismarck, N. D.
Rev. Harris R. Cooley, 73 Bolton St., Cleveland.
Charles A. DeCourcy, Lawrence, Mass.
Wm. M. Johnston, Allegheny, Pa.
Hon. Emlin McClain, Des Moines, Iowa.
R. W. McClaughry, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.
F. H. Mills, 97 Warren St., New York.
Fred G. Pettigrove, State House, Boston.
Richard Sylvester, 1223 Roanoke St., Washington, D. C.
John L. Whitman, Cook Co. Jail, Chicago.
Frederick H. Wines, Scranton, Pa.
H. A. Wolfer, Stillwater, Minn.

MEMBERS AND OFFICERS OF STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

ARIZONA.

BOARD OF CONTROL.

Capitol Building, Phoenix.

[Established 1894.]

Gov. Joseph H. Kibbey, *ex officio*.Phoenix
Geo. E. Truman, citizen member Phoenix
Auditor of State John H. Page, *ex officio* .....Phoenix

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Jos. H. Kibbey, *President*..Phoenix
Geo. E. Truman, *Secretary*.....Phoenix

CALIFORNIA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Temporary Office 2108 Shattuck Ave, Berkeley.

[Established by Act of 1903, approved March 25, 1903.]

Geo. C. Pardee, *Governor*....Sacramento
W. C. Patterson .....Los Angeles
O. K. Cushing..... .....San Francisco
Andrew M. Davis.....San Francisco
J. K. McLean, D. D.....Berkeley
Chas. A. Ramm, D. .D.....San Francisco
E. C. Moore.....Los Angeles

Officers of the Board.

E. C. Moore, *President* 417 Chamber of Commerce Bldg. .....Los Angeles
J. K. McLean, D. D., *Vice President* ..... Berkeley
W. A. Gates, *Secretary*, 2108 Shattuck Ave,.....Berkeley

COLORADO.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

State Capitol, Denver.

[Established by Act of 1901, approved March 19, 1901.]

Gov. Jesse F. McDonald, *ex officio*.. ..... Denver
Dr. D. H. Dougan.....Denver
Mrs. Stanley M. Caspar..... ..Denver
Dr. Eleanor Lowney.....Denver
Rev. Thomas H. Malone.....Denver
Dr. William S. Friedman.....Denver
Hon. William Thomas.....Breckenridge

Officers of the Board.

Dr. Wm. S. Friedman, *President*, ... Denver
Mrs. Stanley M. Caspar, *Vice President* .....Denver
Clarence E. Hagar, Secretary.....State Capitol, Denver

CONNECTICUT.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

State Capitol, Hartford.

[Established by Chapter 45, Public Acts of Laws of 1873, passed July 1, 1873.]

Edwin A. Down, M. D.,.....Hartford
Thomas F. Kane, M. D.....Hartford
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon.....New Haven
Mrs. M. H. C. Mitchell.....Norwich
H. H. Bridgman.....Norfolk

Officers of the Board.

H. H. Bridgman, *President*.....Norfolk
Miss Rebekah G. Bacon, *Agt. for County Temporary Homes*.....New Haven
Mrs. M. H. C. Mitchell, *Agt. for County Temporary Homes* .....Norwich
Charles P. Kellogg, *Secretary and General Agent* .....Waterbury

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

BOARD OF CHARITIES.

464 Louisiana Avenue.

[Established by Act of Congress, approved June 6, 1900.]

S. W. Woodward.....Washington
George William Cook.....Washington
Dr. Charles P. Neill.....Washington
John Joy Edson.....Washington
Simon Wolf.....Washington

Officers of the Board.

S .W. Woodward, *President*..Washington
Geo. S. Wilson, *Secretary*..Washington
Charles P. Neill, *Vice President* Washington

GEORGIA.

THE PRISON COMMISSION OF GEORGIA.

Atlanta.

[Established by Acts of 1897, passed Dec. 21, 1897.]

Joseph S. Turner.....Eatonton
Thomas Eason.....McRae
Clement A. Evans.....Atlanta

Officers of the Commission.

Joseph S. Turner, *Chairman*....Eatonton
Goodloe Yancey, *Secretary*.....Atlanta
Jacob C. Moore, *Warden*.....Rome

ILLINOIS.

THE BOARD OF STATE COMMISSIONERS OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

State House, Springfield.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved April 9, 1869.]

Frank Billings, M. D., 100 State St. ..... Chicago
Mrs. Clara P. Bourland.....Peoria
Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, 3612 Grand Blvd ..... Chicago
Miss Julia C. Lathrop.....Rockford
John T. McAnally, M. D.....Carbondale

Officers of the Board.

Frank Billings, M. D., *President*.... ..... Chicago
William C. Graves, *Secretary*..Springfield
Harry S. Moore, *Asst Secretary*.... ..... Springfield

INDIANA.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Room 52, State House, Indianapolis.

[Established by Chapter 37, Acts of 1889, passed Feb. 28, 1889.]

Timothy Nicholson .....Richmond
Sarah Stockton, M. D.....Indianapolis
William P. Cooper.....Ft. Wayne
Sydney B. Davis.....Terre Haute
Mrs. Carrie Goodwin Rexford..... Indianapolis
Demarchus C. Brown.....Irvington

Officers of the Board.

Gov. J. Frank Hanly, *ex officio President* .....Indianapolis
Amos W. Butler, *Secretary*..Indianapolis

IOWA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, Des Moines.

[Established by Chapter 118, Laws of the 27th General Assembly, passed March 29, 1898].

J. T. Hamilton.....Cedar Rapids
John Cownie.....South Amana
G. S. Robinson.....Sioux City

Officers of the Board.

J. T. Hamilton, *Chairman* ..Des Moines
F. S. Treat, *Secretary*.....Des Moines

KANSAS.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF THE STATE OF KANSAS.

Topeka.

[Established by Chapter 475, of the Laws of 1905.]

Edgar B. Schermerhorn.....Galena
Sherman G. Elliott.....Lawrence
Harry C. Bowman.....Newton

Officers of the Board.

Edgar B. Schermerhorn.....*Chairman*
Sherman G. Elliott.....*Treasurer*
F. W. Knapp.....Secretary

LOUISIANA.

STATE BOARD CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

New Orleans.

[Established by an Act of Legislature, approved July 6, 1904.]

Gov. Newton C. Blanchard, Baton Rouge
Michel Heymann .....New Orleans
T. P. Thompson.....New Orleans
E. B. Herndon.....Shreveport
R. McG. Carruth, M. D.....New Roads
P. M. Westfeldt.....New Orleans

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Newton C. Blanchard, *ex officio President* .....Baton Rouge
Michel Heymann, *Vice President*.... ..... New Orleans
P. M. Westfeldt, *Secretary*.....New Orleans

MARYLAND.

BOARD OF STATE AID AND CHARITIES.

Maryland Telephone Building, Baltimore.

[Established by Act, approved April 11, 1900.]

Ferdinand C. Latrobe, *President*,
Samuel Rosenthal Jr.,
Thomas A. Smith,
A. Webster Smith,
John Lee Carroll,
Reuben Foster,
Frank V. Rhodes.
James R. Brewer, *Secretary*

THE LUNACY COMMISSION.

819 North Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.

[Established by Chapter 487 of the Laws of 1886.]

Stewart Paton, M. D.....Baltimore
Thomas S. Latimer, M. D.....Baltimore
I. E. Atkinson, M. D.....Baltimore
Charles W. Wainwright, M. D., Princess Anne

The Attorney-General, *ex officio*

Officers of the Board.

Thomas S. Latimer, M. D., *President*, Baltimore
George J. Preston, M. D., *Secretary*, Baltimore

MASSACHUSETTS.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 79, of the Laws of 1879, passed April 30, 1879. Amended by Chapter 101 of the Acts of 1886 and Chapter 433, § 24, of Acts of 1898.] See Revised Laws, Chapter 84.

Members of the Board.

Leontine Lincoln, *Chairman*...Fall River
Laban Pratt, *Vice President*.....Boston
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Miss Frances G. Curtis.....Boston
Charles H. Adams.....Melrose
Charles R. Johnson.....Worcester
David F. Tilley.....Boston
Abraham C. Ratschesky.....Boston
Jeffrey R. Brackett.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

Joshua F. Lewis, M. D., *Superintendent of State Adult Poor*.....Boston
William P. Derby, M. D., *Superintendent of State Minor Wards*....Boston
John D. Wells, *Clerk and Auditor of the Board*....Boston

STATE BOARD OF INSANITY.

State House, Boston.

[Established by Chapter 433, of the Laws of 1898, in effect October 1, 1898.]

George F. Jelly, M. D.....Boston
Col. Chas. R. Codman.....Brookline
Seward W. Jones.....Newton Highlands
Michael J. O'Meara, M. D.....Worcester
James B. Ayer, M. D.....Boston

Officers of the Board.

Geo. F. Jelly, M. D., *Chairman*, Boston
Owen Copp, M. D., *Secretary and Executive Officer* .....Boston

THE BOARD OF PRISON COMMISSIONERS.

State House, Boston.

Frederick G. Pettigrove, *Chairman* .....Boston
Henry Parkman .....Boston
Arthur H. Wellman.....Malden
Mrs. Margaret P. Russell.....Boston
Miss Marie Rose Collins.....Boston
J. Warren Bailey, *Secretary Commissioners.*

MICHIGAN.

BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES.

Capitol, Lansing.

[Established by Act 192 of the Laws of 1871, passed April 17, 1871.]

Fred M. Warner, Governor, *ex officio* ..... Saginaw
Hal C. Wyman, M. D.....Detroit
Rt. Rev. Geo. D. Gillespie, D. D., ... Grand Rapids
Henry P. Mowry, M. D.....Bronson
Chas. Lewis.....Jackson

Officers of the Board.

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, D. D., *Chairman* ..... Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, *Secretary*.....Lansing

MINNESOTA.

BOARD OF CONTROL OF STATE INSTITUTIONS.

State Capitol, St. Paul.

[Established by Chapter 122, Laws of 1901, approved April 2, 1901.]

Silas W. Leavett .....Litchfield
O. B. Gould.....Winona
L. A. Rosing.....Cannon Falls.

Officers of the Board.

O. B. Gould, *Chairman*.....Winona
M. C. Cutter, *Secretary*.....St. Paul

MISSOURI.

STATE BOARD CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Jefferson City.

[Established by Senate Bill 320 of the Laws of 1897, passed March 19, 1897.]

Gov. Joseph W. Folk.....Jefferson City
Mrs. Helen T. Thorpe.....Jefferson City
Hon. R. M. Abercrombie.....St. Joseph
Miss Mary E. Perry, 12 Vandeventer Pl. ..... St. Louis
Rev. Fred V. Loos,.....Liberty
Hon. David W. Reese.....West Plains
Hon. Ralph Wammack.....Bloomfield
Frank Bowman .....Jefferson City

Officers of the Board.

Gov. Joseph W. Folk, *ex officio President* .....Jefferson City
Hon. R. M. Abercrombie, *Vice President* .....St. Joseph
Frank Bowman, *Secretary*..Jefferson City

NEBRASKA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC LANDS AND BUILDINGS.

Capitol, Lincoln.

[Established by Chapter 83 of the Laws of 1877, passed Feb. 13, 1877. Provided in the State Constitution of 1875.]

Henry M. Eaton .....Lincoln
Norris Brown .....Lincoln
Peter Mortensen .....Lincoln
A. Galusha .....Lincoln

Officers of the Board.

Henry M. Eaton, *President*.....Lincoln
A. Galusha, *Secretary*.....Lincoln

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

Concord.

[Established by Chapter 116 of the Laws of 1895, passed July 1, 1895.]

James F. Brennan .....Peterboro
Mrs. Ella L. Follansby.....Exeter
Sherman E. Burroughs.....Manchester
Oliver J. M. Gilman.....Alton
Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter.....Concord

Officers of the Board.

Mrs. Lilian C. Streeter, *Chairman* ..... Concord
W. J. Ahern, *Secretary*..... Concord
Miss Caroline E. Evans, *Clerk*..Concord

NEW JERSEY.

STATE BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

629 Commercial Trust Building, Jersey City.

[Established by Legislative Enactment, March 24, 1899.]

Hugh F. Fox.....Plainfield
Joseph McCrystal .....Paterson
Frederick G. Burnham.....Morristown
Rev. J. R. Atkinson.....Elizabeth
Katherine E. Abbey.....Mount Holly
Emily E. Williamson.....Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*..Trenton

Officers of the Board.

Hugh F. Fox, *President*.....Painfield
Emily E. Williamson, *Treasurer*, ... Elizabeth
Anthony T. Williams, *Secretary*..Trenton
Miss Frances Day, *General Agt*..... ..... Jersey City

NEW YORK.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 951 of the Laws of 1867, approved May 23, 1867. Re-established by Chapter 546 of the Laws of 1896, approved May 12, 1896. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

Annie G. de Peyster.....New York
Michael J. Scanlan.....New York
Stephen Smith, M. D.....New York
Augustus Floyd .....Mastic.
John Notman .....Brooklyn
Simon W. Rosendale.....Albany
Wm. R. Remington.....Canton
Dennis McCarthy .....Syracuse
Ralph W. Thomas.....Hamilton
Enoch V. Stoddard, M. D.....Rochester
William H. Gratwick.....Buffalo

Officers of the Board.

Enoch Vine Stoddard, M. D., *President* ..... Rochester
Stephen Smith, M. D., *Vice President* ..... New York
Robert W. Hill, *Acting Secretry*..Albany

STATE COMMISSION IN LUNACY.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Established by Chapter 283, Laws of 1889, approved May 14, 1889. Provided for in the State Constitution of 1894.]

William Mabon, M. D.....Albany
William L. Parkhurst.....Canandaigua

Officers of the Commission.

Wm. Mahon, M. D., *President*
Wm. L. Russell, M. D., *Medical Inspector* .....Poughkeepsie
T. E. McGarr, *Secretary*.....Albany
George D. Sanford, *Auditor*.....Albany

STATE COMMISSION OF PRISONS.

The Capitol, Albany.

[Chapter 1026, Laws of 1895. Amended by Chapter 12, Laws of 1901.]

John G. Wickser, *President*.....Buffalo
Edwin O. Holter, *Vice President* ..... New York
Cornelius V. Collins.....Troy
George McLaughlin, *Secretary*....Albany

NORTH CAROLINA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

The Capitol, Raleigh.

W. A. Blair, *Chairman* Winston-Salem
E. L. Haughton .....Pollocksville
W. F. Craig.....Marion
A. C. McAlister.....Asheboro
Carey J. Hunter.....Raleigh
Miss Daisy Denson, *Secretary*....Raleigh

OHIO.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

State House, Columbus.

[Established by Chapter 4, Revised Statutes of 1867, passed April 17, 1867. Amended March 3, 1906.]

Roeliff Brinkerhoff .....Mansfield
J. G. Schmidlapp .....Cincinnati
Rufus C. Burton.....Zanesville
Virgil P. Kline.....Cleveland
Jesse N. Oren.....Wilmington
Rutherford Hayes Platt.....Columbus

Officers of the Board.

John M. Pattison, Governor, *President ex officio*.....Columbus
Roeliff Brinkerhoff, *Chairman*..Mansfield
H. H. Shirer, *Secretary*.....Columbus

PENNSYLVANIA.

BOARD OF PUBLIC CHARITIES.

[Established by Act of Legislature, passed April 4, 1869.]

Francis J. Torrance.....Allegheny
William T. Bell.....Mt. Union
Cyrus B. King.....Allegheny
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Isaac Johnson .....Media
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Ralph Blum .....Philadelphia
Cadwalader Biddle .....Philadelphia
Samuel E. Gill.....Pittsburgh
Howard B. French.....Philadelphia
Edward K. Rowland.....Philadelphia

Officers of the Board.

Francis J. Torrance, *President*, ... Allegheny
Cadwalader Biddle, *General Agent and Secretary* .....Philadelphia

COMMITTEE ON LUNACY.

Isaac Johnson, *Chairman*.....Media

George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Patrick C. Boyle.....Oil City
Edward K. Rowland.....Philadelphia
Cyrus B. King, M. D.....Allegheny
J. Nicholas Mitchell, M. D., *Secretary* ..... Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

[Established by Chapter 291, General Laws, passed May Session, 1869.]

Walter A. Read.....Glocester
James F. McCusker.....Pontiac
H. W. Shepard.....Bristol
R. H. I. Goddard.....Providence
Philipe Boucher .....Woonsocket
John J. Watson.....Jamestown
Robert F. Rodman.....Allentown
Geo. R. Lawton.....Tiverton
Thomas W. Waterman.....Providence

Officers of the Board.

James F. McCusker, *Chairman*...Pontiac
Charles H. Peckham, *Secretary*, Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS.

Secretary's Office, Mitchell.

[Established by Chapter 5, Session Laws of 1890, passed March 6, 1890. Provided for in the State Constitution.]

W. E. Tipton.....Mitchell
Wm. M. Powers.....Yankton
D. C. Thomas.....Watertown
Jacob Schnaidt .....Menno

Officers of the Board.

Jacob Schnaidt, *President*.....Menno
W. E. Tipton, *Secretary*.....Mitchell

TENNESSEE.

BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES.

Nashville.

[Established by Chapter 193 of the Laws of 1895, passed May 13, 1895.]

Gov. John I. Cox.....Bristol
James Maynard .....Knoxville
Rev. J. W. Bachman, D. D..... ..... Chattanooga
W. R. Cole.....Nashville
Rev. J. A. Orman, M. D., D. D., ... Nashville
Judge Sam W. Hawkins..... ..... Huntingdon
Judge J. H. Malone.....Memphis

Officers of the Board.

Rev. J. W. Bachman, D. D., *President*. ..... Chattanooga
E. P. Anderson, *Asst Secretary*.... Nashville
James A. Orman, *Secretary*..... ..... Nashville

WASHINGTON.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

Olympia.

[Established by Laws of 1901, Chapter 119, H. F. No. 222.]

M. F. Kincaid.....Olympia
J. H. Davis.....Olympia
H. T. Jones.....Olympia

Officers of the Board.

M. F. Kincaid, *Chairman*.....Olympia
C. C. Aspinwall, *Secretary*

WISCONSIN.

STATE BOARD OF CONTROL.

State Capitol, Madison.

[Established by Chapter 202 of the Laws of 1891.]

Gustav Küsterman, *President*..Green Bay
Herman Grotophorst, *Vice President* ..... Baraboo
M. J. Tappins, Secretary.....Madison
Allan D. Conover.....Madison
L. B. Dresser.....St. Croix Falls
Dr. Almah J. Frisby.....Milwaukee

WYOMING.

STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM.

State Capitol, Cheyenne.

Bryant B. Brooks, *President*....Cheyenne
Fenimore Chatterton .....Cheyenne
Thomas T. Tynan, *Secretary*...Cheyenne
Le Roy Grant .....Cheyenne
William C. Irvine.....Cheyenne
F. B. Sheldon, *Clerk*.....Cheyenne

INDEX TO SPEAKERS AND WRITERS.

Adamson, C. E., 586.
Aikens, Miss C. A., 185.
Allen, E. C., 259.
Allen, Wm. H., 570.
Allison, James, 145.
Almy, Frederic, 376, 504, 514.
Amigh, Mrs. O., 525.
Ancker, Arthur B., 165, 530.

Balch, Miss, 593.
Ball, W. C., 568.
Balliet, Thomas M., 243, 565.
Behrhorst, Miss, 590.
Berkowitz, Henry, 596.
Bicknell, E. P., 539, 540, 544, 549.
Bickney, Rev. Dr., 568.
Blackmar, F. W., 28.
Blankenburg, Mrs., 525.
Boyd, Thomas Hunter, 75.
Brackett, Jeffrey R., 445, 498, 567.
Bradford, Mrs. R. P., 596.
Braucher, H. S., 334.
Brandenburg, B., 299.
Brandt, Lilian, 434.
Brown, R. H., 73.
Buck, W. Bradford, 49.
Buckley, J. M., 11.
Buckner, R. C., 69.
Butler, Amos W., 25, 412, 470, 527, 598, 602, 606.
Butler, Mr. (*Jersey City*), 590.

Clark, A. W., 42.
Cleveland, F. A., 199, 568.
Cleveland, Grover, 488.
Copp, Mr. (*Washington*), 590.
Crouter, A. L. E., 249.
Cushing, Grafton D., 106, 538.

Damer, Miss Annie, 535.
Damon, Alex. M., 509, 510.
Dana, Rev. Stephen W., 537.
de Forest, R. W., 496, 503, 510, 580, 596, 606.
Delk, Rev. Dr., 539.
Dennis, Laban, 534.
Denson, Miss Daisy, 57.
Devine, Edward T., 1, 558.
Dodge, Mrs. Arthur, 594.
Downey, W. F., 572.
Drumgold, Rev. Fr., 580.
Drury, Rev., 529.
Dudley, Mrs. E. C., 595.

Eastman, J. H., 66.
Emerson, Charles P., 168, 530.

Fallows, Samuel, 596.
Fetter, Frank A., 464, 598.
Fishberg, Maurice, 304, 585, 591.
Fitzsimmons, T. C., 273.
Fox, H. F., 524, 525.
Folks, Homer, 117, 521, 574, 577, 579.
Forman, S. E., 342, 514, 517.
Francis, Miss Vida H., 138.
Frankel, Lee K., 325.
Friday, Miss Lucy, 136.

Gallagher, Miss E. A., 29.
Ginger, Miss Mina C., 45, 223.
Glenn, Mrs. John M., 580, 586.
Glenn, John M., 591.
Grasty, Nathaniel G., 31.
Gregory, Miss Ida L., 579, 587.
Grotophorst, H., 74.
Gutridge, A. W., 40.

Hagar, Clarence, 19.
Hanly, J. Frank, 401, 544.
Harris, Mr. (*Philadelphia*), 580, 582.
Hart, Hastings H., 87, 525, 529, 537, 538, 540, 549, 561, 573, 574, 579.
Heller, Mrs. H. H., 590.
Henderson, Charles R., 452, 596, 598.
Heymann, Michel, 30.

Jacobson, Mrs. M. A., 532.
Johnson, Alexander, 562.
Johnson, John A., 527.
Johnson, Miss M. L., 530.
Johnstone, E. R., 235, 563.
Jurist, Mrs. Louise, 593.

Keen, Miss Dora, 566, 576.
Kelley, Mrs. Florence, 157, 523, 524, 525.
Kellogg, Charles P., 20.
Kelsey, Carl, 61.
Kelso, J. J., 539.
Kingsley, S. C., 514, 526, 596.
Koren, John, 418.

Laws, Rev. Dr., 563.
Lee, Rev. John C., 503.
Lee, Joseph, 35, 279, 591.
Lee, Porter R., 517.
Lindsay, Samuel McC., 150, 521, 523.
Loeb, Morris, 382 587.
Longino, T. D., 24.
Longstreth, W. W., 261.

McCart, Thomas A., 574.
Macfarland, H. B. F., 227, 498, 570.
Mack, Julian W., 123, 501, 538, 579.
Marsh, Benj C., 589.
Marshall, L. C., 314, 591.
Meade, Mabel, 396.
Morris, Stephen P., 588.
Murdock, J. M., 269.
Murray, Miss A. H., 72.

Neill, Charles P., 523, 525.
Nichols, William I., 516.
Nicholson, Timothy, 539, 558, 562, 563.
Nicoll, Matthias, Jr., 175.

Octavia Hill Association, 367.
Ogden, Robert C., 541.
Osborne, T. L., 573.

Parker, A. J., 512.
Parks, Mrs. E. A., 588.
Patterson, W. R., 206.
Pear, William H., 96, 576.
Perry, Miss M. E., 40.
Pingree, Miss Laliah B., 595.

Ramsey, Mrs. Anna, 132.
Ravenal, Mayzck P., 182.
Reynolds, J. H., 19.
Robertson, H. E., 573.
Rose, Henry H., 504.
Rosebrugh, A. M., 76.
Rosengarten, J. G., 488.

Sanborn, Frank B., 558.
Sehon, George L., 601.
Shirer, H. H., 58.
Sickels, Mrs. Lucy M., 558.
Snedden, David S., 422.
Solenberger, E. D., 349, 504, 510.
Storrs, L. C., 39.
Streeter, Mrs. L. C., 44.

Tanner, J. Mack, 24.
Taylor, J. Madison, 563.
Thompson, Mr. (N. Y.), 524.
Thurston, Henry W., 587, 591
Tilley, David S., 575.
Toomey, Mrs. P. J., 534.
Treat, F. S., 28.
Trumbull, Mrs. M. R., 590.
Tucker, Frank, 196, 568, 570.

Ufford, Walter S., 213.

Valdes, Juan B., 77.
Vanderlip, E. A., 457, 597.
Van Gasken, Dr. Frances, 582, 586.

Walpole, W. R., 60.
Warner, Mrs. A. D., 22.
Weaver, John, 493, 604.
Wentworth, E. P., 80.
Wharton, Miss Susan P., 519, 530.
Williams, Mornay, 111, 539, 571.
Williams, Talcott, 494.
Williams, William, 285, 591.
Williamson, Mrs. E. E., 576, 578.
Wilson, George S., 22.
Wines, F. H., 498, 527, 545.
Witmer, David L., 512.
Wood, Rev. Charles, 488.
Wright, J. Edward, 71.
Wright, Mrs. J. P., 591.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS

Abandonment of family, new law against (D. of C), 23.
ALMSHOUSES: Name changed; Md. 35, Va. 72.
Investigation of resources of inmates (N. J.), 47.
Volunteer visitors for (Mass)., 39.
Amendments to rules of Conference, 525.
ASSOCIATED CHARITIES: Portland, Me., 335.
See also C. O. S. and, Needy Families.

Babington, W. D., 310.
Baby farming: Penalty for (Pa.), 63.
Baltimore and Ohio R. R., 459.
Barnes, Earl, 238.
Barr, Dr. M. W., 270.
Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., tribute to, 540.
Bell, Alexander Graham, 267.
Belloc, Hilaire, 434.
Benevolence, State's burden of, 403.
Bicknell, Ernest P., 498.
Birth-rate, in Phila., 585.
Birtwell, Charles W., 103.
Blind, International Conference on, 259. See *Defectives.*
Booth, Gen. Wm., 349, 363.
Booth-Tucker, Commander, 350.
Boys' and Girls' Aid Society (Ore.), 61.
Buckle, Henry Thomas, 310.
Building Associations, see Neighborhood Work.
Butler, Amos W., 408, 409.
Butler, Benjamin F., 114.

Cabot, Dr., 106.
Caste, 13, its effects, 13, Jewish, 13.
Causes of dependence, see Dependence.
Catholic Sisterhoods, Little Helpers, 534, Sisters of the Holy Ghost, 534.
Charitable finance, see Finance.
CHARITIES: *and Correction;* Dept. of (N. J.), 48.
Federation of Women's, Elmira, N. Y., 51.
Hebrew in N. Y.
International Congress of, Milan, 452, Glasgow, 452.
State Aid Assn. N. J. 49.
State Board of; new in La., 30, paid Sec. for in Mo., 40., Indiana, 408, reorganized in Ill., 25.
United, Memphis, 69. See also C. O. S. and neighborhood work.
CHARITY: Ideal of; Jewish, 2, Christian, 2.
Endorsement Committee, (Newark), 47.
Fund, given by Jap. and Russ. in N. H., 44.
Laws of in Cuba, 77, non-professional worker, 575.
Charlatans, medical, see Sick, care of.
CHILD-HELPING: Arguments about, 92, boarding or free homes, 89, Cautions, 105, Central Bureau for, 98, clearing house of experts, 98, Co-operation in, 99, 100.
Co-ordination of Agencies (Williams), Controversy on, 91, Controversy, end of, 98, diagnosis of need, 96, 97, 99, 100, discharge, investigation before, 99, 101, foster home best for, 89.
Full measure of responsibility (Pear), 96, general agreement reached, 87, individuality of each case, 112, inherited evil, cases of, 113. Institutions temp. expedient for, 88, obligation to case admitted, 97,
Principles of; their evolution, 91, mutual recognition by opposing parties on, 93.
Remedy the; discussion as to, 99, 101, application of, 99, 101.
Respect for other's work, 118.
Responsibility; measure of 95, 96, direct and indirect, 99, 101.
Results; tabulation of, 100, 102, inquiry to learn, 100, 101.
Separation from parents; conditions of, 102, when improper, 102.
See also Children.
CHILD-LABOR: *Committee report (Lindsey),* 150, discussion on, 521, complicity of public, 164, city ordinances *re,* 524, dangerous machinery and, 156, danger of hypocrisy *re,* 162, messenger boys, 525, in theatres, 524, *Moral dangers of premature (Kelley),* 157, National Bureau on, 156, 524, queries in reports, 151, scholarships in aid, 163.
Laws: Advance in, N. Y., 153, Ky., 154, Mo., 154, Mass., 153, Iowa, 153, Southern States, 154-159, N. C., 160, Children's Codes, 152, compliance with, 522, difficulty of enforcing, 155, 159, 521, in Tenn., 159, in S. C., 160, in Ohio, 160, duty of Char. Soc. towards, 155, factory L. enforced in N. Y., 159, fines paid, 160, 161, ditto in O., 160, in Pa., 161, messenger boys exempt from, 163, make up of committee on, 150, New L. in Md., 31, 154, Pa., 63, Newsboys law, N. Y., 157, 158, obstruction of by Char. Soc., 157, 159, objective tests suggested, 160, parental delinquency law, 163, school attendance as test, 161, L. tested in courts, 152, U. S. Bulletin Labor, 152.
CHILDREN: *Committee report (Hart),* 87.
Aid Societies: Balto., 103, Boston, 103, 105, Brooklyn, 103, Chicago, 103, Phila, 103, 574.
Baby-farming, penalty for (Pa), 63.
Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, local boards (Ore.), 61.

CHILDREN — Concluded.
Bureau; of Counsel, Relief, etc., 103, of Information, 103.
Boarding, license act vetoed (Pa.), 65.
Care of by State, Mass., 109.
Causes of need of; ignorance of, 7, 114, study of, 116.
Catholic Church in supervision of, 110, commercial greed agst., 115.
Cruelty to; Societies to prevent, N. Y., 122, 523, Penna., 495, work of, 106, connection of with Humane Societies, 108, different methods of, 109, two theories as to their work, 110.
Dep. Def. and Del. not separable by distinct lines, 87.
Eye and ear test in schools, Vt., 71, Phila., 495.
Friend Society, Boston, 104, 105, Worcester, 104.
Guardians, St. Bd. of N. J., 48.
Home, Cambridge, 104, Home Society, N. D., 58.
Institutions for; joint committee on, N. J., 46, new in (N. Y.), 53, (N. C.) 57, (Tex.), 69, for crippled and deformed (O.), 45.
Manual training, early, 131, modern C. Crusade, 112.
Placing out; Agents for, Inst., State or County, 89, 90, care needed in, 89, 95, co-operation in between E. & W., 539, Catholic Home Bureau for, 95, extension of in N. Y., 53, Lutheran Kinderfreund Society for, 95, Mr. Mulry's report on, 93, small Insts. at disadvantage in, 89, state supervision of, 89, weight of opinion in favor of, 94, West, in, for N. Y., Children, 539.
Tragedies of C. Life, 111.
See also Child helping.
Work of societies to prevent cruelty to, (*Cushing*), 106.
CHRIST: Spirit and principles of, 15, miracles of, 17.
Christmas dinners to poor, 211, 358, 359.
CITIZEN: the good an asset of State, 410, must cultivate interest in State, 411.
City of the future, 496.
CIVIL SERVICE: in Ill., 24, extension of in N. Y., 53, in Wis., 74, evils of, 547.
Civilization not sole source of modern philanthropy, 18.
Club work for boys and girls, 588.
Compulsory education, see Education.
CONFERENCE: *National;* central task of, 1, bearing on social problems, 2, 501, high water mark of at Phila., 603, influence on Insts., 1, Golden Rule its principle, 17, members of as learners, 499, organization of, 1906, xv. 1907, 668, origin of, 11, results of in Ga. and Me., 334, rules of amended, 525, spirit of, 500, work of, 501.
Of Jewish Charities; 502.
State; law authorizing in O., 85, list of by states, 83-86, results of in Colo., 83, Ky., 84, Mass., 84, N. J., 48, Va. 85.
COUSINS: *intermarriage of* (*Longstreth*) 261.
Children of; tendency to neuroses, 262, to color blindness, 262, to deafness, 265, first cousin marriages, 262, same name marriages, 262, 263, statistics of, 262-268, amongst various classes of people, 264, in France, 268-269.
Cramer, J. D., 544.
Crothers, Dr. Samuel, 434, 441, 442.
Cruel sports, 13.
Curve of sex divergence, 139.
Consent, age of raised in Ky., 29.
Consumer's League, 6, 160, investigation of home work by in N. J., 46.
Consumption, see Tuberculosis.
Convalescents, provision for in N. Y., 52.
CONVICT LABOR: road making, Md., 34.
Contract; abolished in O., 59, Ind., 407, 408.
Control, Board of: new in Ky., 29, successful in Minn., 528.
Co-operation, problem in (*Braucher*), 334.
Cooper, Peter, 114.
C. O. S.: Balto., 215, N. Y., 326.
New; Lafayette, Ind., 27, Spokane, 73.
Progress of; Lincoln, Neb., 42, Concord, N. H., 44, Raleigh, N. C., 57, Seattle, 73, Ohio, 47.
Cost of Institutions in Indiana, 407.

Darrah, Estella, 238.
Darwin, Sir Geo. H., 262, 263.
DAY NURSERY: Am. Federation of Meeting, 594, earliest educ, infl., 594, Est. in Portland, Ore., 61, growth of, 595, neighborhood work of, 595.
Deaf, see defectives, also Cousins, intermarriage of.
Deaf, American asylum for, 255.
DEFECTIVES: Committee report, 235, discussions, 563.
Blind; aid for, Pa., 62, R. I., 68, feeble minded blind, see feeble minded, association to protect, N. Y., 51, State Commissioner to aid, Md., 34, Mass., 37, public schools for, 88, compulsory education of, 52, purpose of schools for, 260, potentiality of, 26.
Classes of; 16, new classes of, 402, classification, 237.
Deaf; care and training of (*Crouter*), nature and of care of, 249, appearance and character of, 250, 259, new bldgs, for in Ind., 26, compulsory education of, 32, public schools for, 88, school for colored in Va., 72, causes of, 250, consanguineous marriages and, 251, classes of the, 253, deaf and feeble minded, 253, labor suited to, 254, cost of Insts. for, 259, number of, 250, number of schools for, 250, methods of instruction, 255, 256, State's attitude towards, 258, trade teaching of, 258.
Education of public *re* defectives, 235, 236, 237.
Epileptics; colony for in Ind., 26, for insane E. in Va., 42, Inst. for opened in Ontario, 76, epileptics and feeble minded, see F. M.
Feeble Minded; commission on Sch. for, R. I., 67, children in almshouses, 38, classes for in public schools, reasons for, 566, corporal punishment of, 277, overcrowding of in Mass., 38, permanent care needed for, 88, trustees to retain in Inst. 33, parental right to retain at home, 377, pay for labor Inst., 275.

DEFECTIVES — Concluded.
Feeble-minded blind; (*Allen*), 259, possibilities of, 260, economic loss by mingling with other blind, 261.
Feeble minded and epileptics; new Inst. for in Pa., 235, needs similar, 272, proportion of Epi. also f. m., 272, experience in mingling classes, 272, numbers of in Pa., 209.
Laws concerning defectives, 235, 240, 504, marriage of d., 373.
Institution, new, for F. M. and Epi. in Penna. (*Murdock*), 269, (*Fitzsimmons*), 273.
Medical inspection of in public schools, 236, necessity of special care of, 235, preventable causes of, 235, 240, 504, 566.
Instruction *re* in professional schools, 236, 564, scientific study of, 342, scientific value of Insts. for, 235, 241, 243, 276, 565, self-support of, 235, 238, 239.
DELINQUENTS: Classes of, 16, girl, see girl d., complete occupation for, 145, country location of Inst. for, 149, industrial training of boys, 145, field of labor of, 146, market for products of, 148.
DEPENDENCE: *Causes of;* ignorance, 7, 8, social, 8, business, 4, 6, personal vs. social, 8, common elements in, 5, great disasters as, 16, attack on, 3, elimination of, 410.
See also needy families.
DEPENDENTS: Classes of, 16, new classes of, 402.
Devine, Edward T., 115, 241, 376, 438, 497, 501.
DISEASE: *prevention of; educational opportunity of visiting nurse in* (*Miss Aikens*), 185, lack of isolation hospitals for contagious diseases, 190.
Disraeli, Benjamin, 182.
Dix, Dorothea, 270, 468.
Doctors and drugs, see Sick, care of.
Drugs, drug habit, etc., see Sick, care of.

EDUCATION, *prehistoric of the race* (*Balliet*), 243, Board of (Phila.), 576, its Co-operation with Children's Aid Society, 576.
Companionship chief element in, 113, fads and essentials in, 248, in development of mind and body, 243, of Indian chiefs in America, 244, literary E. limited to few generations, 244, through self-activity, 245, through industries, 247, social intercourse, 247.
Compulsory; of deaf and blind (Md)., 32, its effects on child labor, 161, employers made responsible, 46, truant officers to inspect shops, etc., 46.
Educational Association, National, 235, 242.
Efficiency in State Institutions (Hanly), 401.
Elmore, Andrew E., 527, 559.
Elwyn, Dr. Alfred, 276.
EMERGENCIES, *relief in;* 541 problems of, 541, Johnstown flood, 542, San Francisco, 549.
Employers, made responsible for education of child laborers, 46.
Employment, free public bureau (Portland, Ore.), 61.
Epileptics, see Defectives.
Fay, Dr. Edward A., 267.
FEEBLE MINDED, Pa. training school for, 270, state school for (Polk), 269, 271.
See defectives.
FINANCE, CHARITABLE: *Committee report* (*Tucker*), 196, discussion, 568.
Budget of Char. activity making the, (*Patterson*), 206, co-operation of public and private funds, 569, definition of budget, 206, difference between charitable and commercial finance, 201, emergency plans, and relief, 207, infidel, corporate, 202, Institutional pathology, 199.
History (*financial*) *of Newark Bureau* (*Ginger*), 233, philanthropic balance sheet, 199, problems of public funds,, 196, preparation for budget, 209, race ideal of accountability, 204, search for new sources of revenue, 211, responsibility of trustees, 201, 203, stool pigeons on benevolent boards, 202, trusteeship corporate, 200, trusteeship, function of, 197, see also funds for Charity.
Fiscal supervision of state charities, N. Y., 56.
Frankel, Lee K., 498, 503.
FUNDS FOR CHARITY: *Methods of raising* (*Ufford*), 213.
Appeal; methods of, 214, printed, 214, postal card, 215, newspaper, 219
Boston A. C. plan, 217, business man's committee, 218, backing of finance committee, 220.
Collectors; salary or per cent., 215, 225, for new contributors, 216, for renewals, 215, qualifications of, 224, 227, training school preparation for, 227, directors part in collecting, 226.
Federated appeals, 221, mailing list, 219, method of Jewish Char., 222. Liverpool and Denver plans, 222, substantial contributions, 227, possibility of small sums, 227, views of paid administrator and volunteer board, 213.

Gardner, Senator Augustus, 302.
Garrett, Philip C., 527, 559, 582.
Gerry, Commodore, 157.
Giddings, Professor, 304, 312.
Gilman, Bradley, 246.
GIRL: *delinquent; the* (*Miss Francis*), 138, adolescence of, 140, 143, craves affection, 143, effects on of court proceedings, 140, is legally normal, 139, offenses of, 139, problem of, 138, 141, methods erroneous, 141, 142, 146, training school for, 142.
Grand Trunk R. R. of Canada, 459.
Green, Andrew H., 114.

Health public, new laws Mass., 36, reform in Phila., 63.
Heredity the mightiest social force, 280.
HOSPITALS: *general;* mayor's commission on in N. Y., 52, new in N. Y., 53, in N. C., 57, new bldgs. for in N. Y., 53,. methods in Cuba, 78.
Contagious; requirements of (*Nicoll*), 175, fatalities in, 178, necessity of, 176, locations of in N. Y., 179, comparison of private and public, 181.
Insane; see Insane.
HOUSE: *cleaning;* sanitary value of, 530. keeper, visiting, 533.
Of Refuge; name changed, Md., 33.

Housing conditions, see Neighborhood Work.
Howard, John, 468.
Humane Society, W. Va., 74.
Human sacrifices, 12.
Hunter, Robert, 328.

Idolatry, 12.
IMMIGRATION: *Committee report* (*Lee*), 279, discussion, 591.
American interests paramount, 282, 299, American birth rate, 306, 307, 319, 320, attitude of restrictionist, 280, Baltic stock, 217, charts on racial stock, 626, classes excluded, 286, character of 1790 population, 316, contract labor law, 297, changing character of recent, 318, change in national type by, 308, distribution of I, 297, distribution of races in Europe, 313, 315, difficulty in administering laws, 292, 301, foreign agencies to defeat laws, 293, fallacy of U. S. racial purity, 304, forced, voluntary and excluded I., 314, fraudulent practices, 303, head tax, 294, 302, increase of head tax, 593, inspection, 294, elimination of unfit, 314, economic effects, 282, effects on racial character, 282.
Ethnic factors in (*Fishberg*), 304, every admission an exclusion, 282.
Laws; how made effective (*Brandenburg*), 299, legislation pending, 302, location of immigrants, 287.
New Immigration, features and remedies (*Williams*), 285, naturalization frauds, 296, 298, physical deterioration by, 305, pipe line immigration, 322, problem stated, 279, present laws defective, 288, pauper I. 293, passenger act, 294, quality of I., 592.
Race effects; in (*Marshall*), 314, racial effects permanent, 283, 289, 323, racial composition of nations, 304, race exclusion a question of difference rather than inferiority, 284.
Restriction suggested, 290, restriction inevitable, 281, regulation of ocean voyage needed, 593, selection, 280, by class, not race, 284, 300, stimulated and assisted I, 290, 291, social consequences of I, 299, undesirable minority, 285.
Indeterminate sentence, commission to study (*Md*), 34.
Industrial training for boys (*Allison*), 145.
Inebriate, Ontario Society for, 76.
Infants, license for boarding (Balto), 32.
INSANE: appropriations for (N. Y., 49, after care (N. Y.), 54, commission on Crim. insane (Pa), 64, female escorts for f. patients (N. J)., 46, new hospitals for, O., 59, reception Hosps. for (N. Y.) 52, state care in Mass., 38, supervision of hosps by Comr. of Char., N. J., 45, insane person diseased, 529.
Institution new, for F. M. and Epi. see defectives.
Institutions, Statistics of, Reports from States, 630.
Institutions, organization of in Indiana, 405.
INSURANCE: *Wkg. mens and old age pensions; Committee report* (*Henderson*), 452.
discussion, 596.
appeal for congressional influence in, 599.
From Employers' standpoint (*Vanderlip*), 457.
Amount of; Fraternal 454 Industrial, 455, 456, ordinary, 453, trade union, 454, 455.
Benefits of, 462, 463, govt. or corporation?, 463, heroism of wkgmen, 466, in Germany, 458.
Need of Industrial; (*Fetter*), 464.
Pensions; Employes R. R., 453, 455, 458, 459, 460, 461, Manufacturing Companies do, 462, risks of labor, 465, 468, R. R. accidents, 465, 466, parasitic industry, 599, social necessity of, 598, U. S. backward in, 453, see also Pensions.
Isanoff, Stoyan, 400.

Jacobs, Joseph, 265.
Jewish charities, special burden of, 502.
Johnstown flood relief, 541.
Juvenile asylum, N. Y., 538.
JUVENILE COURT: *Address by Judge Mack*, 123, discussion on 576, Baltimore, 138, beginning of problem, 123, delinquent child in, 125, del. girl in, 141, Denver, 579, detention home for in Neb., 42, Oregon, 60, essential principles of, 126, established in Ky., 29, Portland, Ore., 60, Utah, 70, great social agency, 87, judge not to be prob. officer, 124, judge must be philanthropist, 127, library for, 138, need of recognized in Texas, 70, permanent part of judicial system, 90, progress in Indiana, 27, success depends on pub. sentiment, 91, volunteer aids to 9, what is new in Juv. Ct., 125, what Juv. Ct can do, 90.
Law; new or amended, D. of C., 22, Ohio, 60, Illinois, of 1899, 117, campaign for in Mass., 36, unconstitutional law in Mich., 39, parental delinquency bill vetoed in Pa., 65.

Kinne, Lavega G., 527, 559, 562.
Kropotkin, Prince, 246.

LABOR LAWS: street trades licensed (Mass), 37, employment agency regulation act vetoed (Pa.), 65, see also child labor.
Legislation, uniform respecting support of children in Institutions, 600.
Lewis, Herbert W., 228.
Licentiousness, Roman, 14.
Little Helpers, Catholic Sisterhood, 534.
Lindsey, Ben B., 124, 164, 400.
Long Day, The, 332.

Magruder, Rev. J. W., 342.
Measles in Institutions, 177.
Medical aid free, see Sick, care of.
Medical schools, duty of, see Sick, care of.
Medical School, St. Louis, 535.
Medicines, patent, 530, co-operative purchase of, 530, see also Sick, care of.
Minnesota, advantages of, 527, Bd. of Control of, 528.
Mothers with infants, placing out, 46, in jails, N. Y., 50.
Mortality rate and crowding, 584, infant, 585.

Muller, Max, 252.
Mulry, Thomas M., 93, 94.

NEEDY FAMILIES: *in their homes, committee report* (*Frankel*), 325. discussion, 504.
amount of pauperism not alarming, 326.
Causes; of destitution, 329, 330, ignorance, 331, industrial inefficiency, 332, exploitation of labor, 333, defects of good supervision, 334.
Co-operation; problem in (*Braucher*), 334, by group plan, 340, of churches, 341.
Char. Insts., pop. of, 328, criticism from opponents valuable, 339, division of labor, in Char., 336, dole relief, transition from, 338, duplication of work by socities, 336, nomenclature of Char. changing, 325, foundations of Char. relief, 325, poverty and pauperism, demarkation of, 327, poverty preventable, 334, philanthropic position, restatement of, 327, relief in U. S., total cost of, 327, 328.
See also dependence and standards of living.
Neighborhood house, dispensary at, 173.
NEIGHBORHOOD WORK: *Committee report;* 367, discussion 580, national meaning of, 376.
Housing conditions; in Phila. (*Octavia Hill Association*), 367, housing, 519, house owning, 372, bldg. and loan assns., 368, crowding of rooms, 370, tenement house act Pa., 367, 608, tenement inspection, 375, large lot demanded, 367, proportion of small houses, 368, 369, 370, 371, 373, reconstruction of old houses, 374.
See also "Tenement houses," "Population, distribution of," and "Playgrounds."
NEW INSTITUTIONS: *Laws for;* women's Refy., N. J. 45, Ref. Sch. for Boys, La., 30, Bldgs. for Rel. services, N. Y., 50, Indust. Sch. for girls, Va., 71.
Sites and bldgs. for; Col. for Epi., Ind., 26, Col. for Ins. Epi., Va., 72, Det. Home for Juv. Ct., Neb., 42, Hosp. for Insane, Ind., 26, Home for Del. Chil., Utah, 70, Home for aged Cath. men., Ky., 29, Home for Aged, Neb., 42, Home all prayer foundling, Ky., 29, Home for financially unfortunate, Utah, 70, Indust. School for Girls, Ind., 26, 404, Reformatory, Ark., 19, Reformatory Juv., Ga., 24, School for Deaf, Ind., 26, 404, state prison, N. Y., 50 Sanatorium, Minn., 40, School for Col. Deaf and Blind, Va., 72.
See also *"Tuberculosis."*
NURSE: *Visiting;* educational work of, 185, 535, 536, E. work ceasing too soon, 189, diet, instruction in, 536, house cleaning by, 531, National Assn. needed for, 190, management of, 186, objects of, 185, opportunity of, 185, 531, overcrowding in ranks of, 195, training schools for V. N. needed, 194, teaching physiology and hygiene, 192, 536, training rights and duties, 192, 537, V. N. in England, 191, in Pa., 191, V. N. Assn. records, 193, V. N. and cripples, 191.
NURSES: Queen's Jubilee Inst. for, 191, Victorian order of, Canada, 194, at San Francisco after fire, 557.

O'Connor, Charles, 114.
OFFENDERS: Dealt with as human beings, 107, individuality of, 107, institutional methods of dealing with, 119.
Old age honored, 14.
Old age pensions, see Insurance, etc.
Organization of Conference, 1906, xv.; 1907, 668.
OUTDOOR RELIEF: Amount of in Ind., 409, "Model law" in Ind., 419, new law for, N. J., 46, Reports from States on, 79-83, reform of in Paterson, N. J., 81, reform in Indiana, 80, results of decrease of, 409.
OVERCROWDING: of rooms, 370, 532, caused by greed, 585, 586, caused by frugality, 586.
See also Population, distribution of.

Paine, Robert Treat, 452.
PARENTS: indigent supported by children, Ky., 29, delinquent, bill *re* vetoed Pa., 65.
Parole law, operation of in Indiana, 27.
Pauperism, amount less than alleged, 326.
Peace Conference, charity fund from, N. H., 44.
Penalty minimum, abolished in Md., 34.
PENSIONS: *Government and Municipal* (*Butler*), 470, abuses of, 474, arguments agst., 483, argu. for, 484, arrears of, 472, 473, bibliography of, 617, charts of municipal, 612, continental congress and, 471, Civil war P., 472, civil service P., 478, combination of pension and insurance, 486, degradation by, 475.
Effects of; on character, 475, on crime, 476, on politics, 475, on patriotism, 474, on morality, 474.
Federal P., 471, frauds, 472, financial burden of, 475.
Life saving service, 478, military land grants, 473, M. service pensions, 473, medical examinations for, 475, municipal pensions, fire and police, 481, Nurses P., 447, presidents' widows, 478, Plymouth pilgrims, 471, seamen's P., 479, 480, 481, teachers' P., 483, Virginia, 471.
Philadelphia, dependents and defectives in, 494, workhouse, 493, 494.
PHILANTHROPY: *Modern; dominant note of* (*Devine*), 1, civilization not sole cause of, 18, conservative aim of, 10, justice the spirit of, 9, individual responsibility in, 10, profitable task of, 9, radical methods of, 9.
And accountancy; (*Cleveland*), 199.
See also Finance, charitable.
Preventive, 495, Schools of: see Schools of Phi., etc.
See also "Needy families."
PLAYGROUNDS: (*Meade*), 396, statistics of, 611, German, 397, concert 397, in numerous cities 397, municipal, 398, model at St. Louis Expo., 399, need of, 590, public schools and, 400, woman's clubs and, 399, Portland, Ore., 61.
Police State, dept. est. in Pa., 64.
Political pull in Indiana institutions, 406.

Poor Association, Baltimore, 215.
POPULATION: *Distribution of* (*Loeb*), 382, artificial barriers useless, 383.
Colonization; by Govt., 386, attempts at, 386, by removal of factories, 386, by salvation army, 394, in Poland by Germ. Govt. failure, 386.
Industrial removal office; 387, statistics of, 389, 390, expense of, 390, efforts with immigrants, 391.
Jewish Agric. and Indust. Aid Society; 393, loans of, 393, Russ. Jew farmer, 393, his special difficulties, 393.
Overcrowding; in N. Y., 383, 385, a cause on Fifth ave., 384, remedies for, 383, 385, tremendous working population needed in N. Y., 384.
Removal; individual, 387, demand for artizans, 388, strikes and R., 389, to farms, 392, to Govt. homesteads, 392, duty of State to, 394.
Prevention of disease, see Disease.
Primeval man, dangers of, 464.
PRISON: State; Comm. for Improvement of N. Y., 54, commission N., Y., 54, commission to locate new, O., 59.
PROBATION: *Adult;* efforts for in O., 60, state aid to in R. I., 68.
Juvenile; (*Homer Folks*), 117, discussion on, 576, arguments for no longer needed, 117, commission on, N. Y., 54, report of, 128, effects of on Inst. pop. (R. I.), 68, essential factors of, 117, committees to have charge of, 122, 124, extension of, recent, 117, parental responsibility, 590, methods as various as places, 117, 132, not "act of clemency," 119, a "soft-snap," 119, substitute for Institution, 129, ditto carried out in Ontario, 77, separated from court work, 124, resembles friendly visiting, 120, value of court proceedings in, 118, work must be organized, 120, 121, 123, work must be individual, 125.
Officer; work of preliminary to trial (*Ramsey*), 132.
Work of in Court (*Friday*), 136.
Additional officers, 124, Association of in New Jersey, 579, as court officers, 576, chief executive needed, 122, conferences of, 130, direction of work an executive (not a judicial) function, 121, 577, paid by county, 124, plan for selecting, 120, meeting of P. officers, 587, not enough paid officers, 129, independent commission, 579, unpaid board for, 577, supervision of P. O. not a judicial function, 578, volunteers as, 129, 130, 588, relief giving by an evil, 590, responsibility to court of, 578.
Work of; 118, 119, 591, in Balto., 32, in N. J., 576, in Denver, 587, Chicago, 588, Omaha, 588, investigation 132, 134, 137, at hearing, 132, during detention, 133, reporting on cases, 136, preventive w., 589, 590.
Prophylaxis, Society for sanitary and moral, 532.
Provident Loan Association (N. Y.), 394.
Pyle, Dr. W. M., 165.
Rainyday Society, 530.
RED CROSS SOCIETY: National, 549, N. Y., 549, methods of, 551, at San Francisco, 551.
Reform, financial interests adverse to, 6, 7.
REFORMATORIES: Governing board for N. Y., 50, juvenile, their office, 88.
Relief in emergencies, 541.
Reliance Trading Co. (Salv. Army), 350, 351.
Reports from States, 19, statistics of, 630.
RESOLUTIONS, report of Committee, 600, on statistics, 527, 563, on Mrs. Barrows, 540, on deceased officers, 559, on child support, 600, on list of places of meeting, 600, on Conference songs, 601, on thanks, 601.
Rhode Island: management of St. Insts. system, 66, method of Bd. of St. Char., 60.
Richmond, Mary E., 495.
Ripley, Prof. W Z., 312.
Roosevelt, President, 396.
Salaries of social workers, 451.
SALVATION ARMY: *relief work of the;* (*Solenberger*), 349, discussion on, 504, annual statements of, 365, cases of quoted, 357, Christmas dinners of, 358, 359, 511, colony farms of, 353, 394, colonist qualifications, 354, exploitation of unfortunate by ,360, Industrial home at Newark, 506, junk business, 356, lodging houses of, 507, 512, need of money of, 506, pledges taken by recruits, 363, public accountant of, 364, public demand on, 508, religious work of, 504, Rider Haggard on farm colonies, 511, scheme for social salvation of, 349, sentimental views of, 505, shelters, homes, etc., 351, 352, subsidiary corporations of, 350, 351, 510, system of social work, 350.
Salvation Army Industrial Homes Co., 351, 356.
SAN FRANCISCO: disaster and the Conference, 497, relief work at, 549.
SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY: List of, 445, at Buckner Home, Tex., 57, St. Louis, 41, Boston, 449, Chicago Inst. Social Science, 446, Cleveland study class, 445, discussion on, 567, N. Y. School, 448, lectures by Com. of Bd. of St. Charities N. Y. 51, preliminary course U. of P. at Phila., 63, school on child helping methods for Humane Society workers by S. P. C. C. N. Y., 51, possibilities of, 450, specialization of social workers, 450.
School, training for colored women Ky., 30.
SICK, CARE OF: *Committee report* (*Ancker*), 165, dicussion, 530, chief function of physician, 165, credulity concerning disease, 166, charlatans and the poor, 170, doctor as educator.
Free medical aid for poor; (*Emerson*), 168,
Known causes of disease, 166, medical schools, duty of, 168, neighborhood house dispensaries, 173, patent medicines and the poor, 171, patients cry for drugs, 166, physical the cause of social disease, 169.
Sickles, Mrs. Lucy M., 558.
Simmons College for Women, 449.
Smallpox in Phila., 184.
Smith, Adam, 406.

Smith, Mary Roberts, 498.
Social bookkeeping, 424.
Social psychology, 105, 106.
Social Work, definition of, 451, conscience awakening towards, 470.
Social Workers, training of, see Schools of Phi.
Society a perfect, 10.
Songs for the Conference, 601.
Spoils political, 406.
STANDARDS OF LIVING: (*Forman*), 342, discussion, 514, adequate relief, 518, cases illustratng, 343, co-operative purchasing, 520, economical buying, 516, 517, food element dominant, 343, fuel for poor, how secured, 346, food per cent. of expenditure, 344, incomes of poor, 514, installment plan purchases, 346, 347, losses by bad bargains, 348, making life and making living, 516, poverty line one-fifth of population on it, 342, rent of poor, 345, 514, under nourishment in lean weeks, 344.
STATISTICS: *Committee report* (*Butler*), 412, appendix to do.; 620-625, collection of, defined, 412, check on corruption, 428, financial reports, 416, card methods for public institutions, 415, card catalog for private societies, 437, 438, paucity of trustworthy S., 413, 418, resolution on, 563, social bookkeeping, 424, uniformity desirable, 415, valuable to whom? 413, 423, 424, value of original entries, 427.
Of dependent families; (*Brandt*), 434, form showing improvement, 440, cost of the machinery, 443, hateful to charity workers, 436, "mess of facts," 441, national statistical blank of 1888, 436, picture of case at time of application, 438, results in increased efficiency, 444, results must be used, 441, stultifying the statistical method, 434, subject matter of S. of dep, families, 436, useful work for volunteer assistants, 443.
Social; as presented by State Bds. of Charities (*Snedden*), 422, classes of statistics desirable, 428, 429, correlation of facts, 431, methods of grouping, 430, tabulating results, 441, totals and ratios, 430, misleading averages, 431.
STATISTICAL NEEDS, OUR, (*Koren*), 418, abuse of statistics, 418, basis for legislation, 420, census bureau cannot create, collect, whose business, 421, test of results of laws, 420, test of work done, 436, lack of appreciation, 419.
Stead, W. T., 362.
SUBSIDIES: *public to private charities* (*Macfarland*), 227, advantages of per cap. payments, 571, effects of lump sum S., 571, in N. Y., 572, in D. C., 572, increase in Pa., 61.
Sully, James, 238.
SUPERVISION: *State;* of private charities, 109, new plan in Md., 35, by governor in N. C., 57, future object of, 403, 405, need of, 545, by St. Bd. of Char., 545, by State Bd. of Control, 545, public sentiment towards, 403, by private visitors, 548, subjects of, 545.

TENEMENT HOUSES: breeders of tuberculosis, 501, committee of C. O. S. on, Buffalo, 376, city ordinances *re*, Buffalo, 376, 380, houses vacated for repairs, 377, increased rents, 382, fines and penalties, 379, Penna. tenement house law, 608, N. Y. law of 1901, 376, Phila. plans of, 580, 581, one family houses, 582, table of one family houses in cities, 610, room crowding in tenements, 186, 187, 188, summary evictions (Buffalo), 376, state commission on (N. J.), 48.
See also Neighborhood Work.
Trade school, in reformatory, 16, T. and technical schools, 395.
TRAINING OF SOCIAL WORKERS (*Brackett*), 445, discussion, 567.
See also Schools of Philanthropy.
Trustees benevolent, see *Finance, Charitable.*
TUBERCULOSIS: Annual loss from, people, 182, money, 185, bldgs for in Insts. (Ill), 25, campaign, educational on, N. Y., 51, dispensaries for, 183, disinfection of houses after, 193, death rate from in Phila., 605, educational functions of Institutions, 184, Institutions needful for, 183, hospitals for advanced cases, 184, sanatoria for incipient cases, 183, problem of, 501, prevention, 501, sanatoria unoccupied, 168.
New institutions for; Hosp. at St. Prison, Ky., 29, Hosp. St. Louis, 29, state sanatorium, Mich., 40, do Iowa, 28, do. Md., 33, do. Ohio, 59, do city Louisville, 29, do N. Y. and L. I., 51, do private, Vt., 71, pavilion at St. Hosp., Rochester, 51, state association formed, N. J., 46, spitting habit, 184, visiting nurse and prevention, 193.
State and Municipal Control (*Ravenal*), 182.

Very, Miss, 398.
Vital Statistics, Md., 35, Pa., 63.
Volta Bureau, 267.

Walker, General, 307.
War: ancient, 12, and the Romans, 12, and the philosophers, 12.
Warner, Amos G., 228, 435.
Wells, Kate Gannet, 240.
Willard Parker Hospital, N. Y., 179, 180.
Wilson, George S., 228.
Wright, A .O., 527, 559, 561.

3 gal
154+

DATE DUE

19 JAN 73 CLM

DEMCO 38-297

3 2044 147 693 626